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HISTORY
OF
LATIN CHRISTIANITY;

INCLUDING THAT OF
THE POPES TO THE PONTIFICATE OF NICOLAS V.

By HENRY HART MILMAN, D.D.,
DEAN OF ST. PAUL'S.

IN NINE VOLUMES.—VOL. IX.

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HISTORY OF LATIN CHRISTIANITY.

BOOK XIV.

CHAPTER I.

Survey.

FROM the reign of Nicolas V. and the close of our history, as from a high vantage-ground, we must survey the whole realm of Latin Christendom—the political and social state, as far as the relation of Latin Christianity to the great mass of mankind; the popular religion, with its mythology, the mental development in philosophy, letters, arts.

Eight centuries and a half had elapsed since the Pontificate of Gregory the Great—the epoch of the supreme dominion of Latin Christianity in the West. The great division of mankind, which at that time had become complete and absolute, into the Clergy (including the Monks, in later days the Friars) and the rest of mankind, still subsisted in all its rigorous force. They were two castes, separate and standing apart as by the irrevocable law of God. They were distinct, adverse, even antagonistic, in their theory of life, in their laws, in their corporate property, in their rights, in their immunities. In the aim and object of their existence, in their social duties and position, they were set asunder by a broad

deep, impassable line. But the ecclesiastical caste being bound, at least by its law, to celibacy, in general could not perpetuate its race in the ordinary course of nature; it was renewed by drawing forth from the laity men either endowed with or supposed to be trained to a peculiar mental turn, those in whom the intellectual capacity predominated over the physical force. Religion, which drove many out of the world within the sacred circle, might be a sentiment, a passion, an unthinking and unreasoning impulse of the inward being; holy ignorance might be the ambition, the boast of some monks, and of the lower friars; but in general the commission to **teach** the religion implied (though itself an infused **gift** or grace, and the inseparable consequence of legitimate consecration to the office) some superiority of mind. At all events the body was to be neglected, sacrificed, subdued, in order that the inner being might ripen to perfection. The occupations of the clergy were to be in general sedentary, peaceful, quiescent. Their discipline tended still further to sift, as it were, this more intellectual class: the dull and negligent sunk into the lower offices, or, if belonging by their aristocratic descent to the higher, they obtained place and influence only by their race and connexions, wealth and rank by unclerical powers of body and of mind. These were ecclesiastics by profession, temporal princes, even soldiers, by character and life. But this, according to the strict theory of the clerical privilege, was an abuse, an usurpation. Almost all minds which were gifted with or conscious of great intellectual capacity, unless kings, or nobles, or knights, whose talents might lead to military distinction, appeared predestined for, were irresistibly drawn into, or were dedicated by their prescient parents or guardians to the Church. The younger sons,

especially the illegitimate sons, even of kings, far more of princes and nobles, were devoted, as the Church became wealthy and powerful, to this career as a provision. But even with this there either was, or according to general opinion there ought to have been, some vocation and some preparation : many of these were among the ablest, some even among the most austere and pious of churchmen. The worst, if they did not bring the more fitting qualifications, brought connexion, famous names (in feudal times of great importance), and thus welded together, as it were, the Church with the State.

Education, such as it was (and in many cases for the times it was a high education), had become, with rare exceptions, their exclusive privilege. Education

Whoever had great capacities or strong thirst for knowledge could neither obtain nor employ it but in the peaceful retirement, under the sacred character, with the special advantages of the churchman, or in the cloister. The whole domain of the human intellect was their possession. The universities, the schools, were theirs, and theirs only. There the one strife was between the secular clergy and the regulars—the monks, or the friars the disciples of S. Dominic and S. Francis. They were the canon lawyers, and for some centuries, as far as it was known or in use, the teachers and professors of the civil law. They were the historians, the poets, the philosophers. It was the first omen of their endangered supremacy that the civil lawyers in France rose against them in bold rivalry. When in the Empire the study of the old Roman law developed principles of greater antiquity, therefore, it was asserted, of greater authority than the canon law, it was at once a sign and a proof that their absolute dominion was drawing towards its close—that human intellect was finding another road to

distinction and power. Physical science alone, in general, though with some famous exceptions, they unwisely declined: they would not risk the popular suspicion of magical and forbidden arts—a superstition which themselves indulged and encouraged. The profound study of the human body was thought inconsistent with the fastidious modesty of their profession.* The perfection of medicine and of all cognate inquiries, indeed in general of natural philosophy itself, was left to Jews and Arabs: the great schools of medicine, Montpellier and Salerno, as they derived their chief wisdom from these sources, so they freely admitted untoured, perhaps unbaptised, students. It is difficult to calculate the extent of this medical influence, which must have worked, if in secret, still with great power. The jealousy and hatred with which Jews or supposed unbelievers are seen at the courts of kings is a secret witness to that influence. At length we find the king's physician, as under Louis XI., the rival in authority of the king's confessor. In this alone the hierarchical caste does not maintain its almost exclusive dominion over all civil as well as ecclesiastical transactions.

For it is not only from their sacred character, but from their intellectual superiority, that they are in the courts, in the councils, of kings; that they are the negotiators, the ambassadors of sovereigns; they alone can read and draw up state papers, compacts, treaties, or frame laws. Writing is almost their special mystery; the notaries, if not tonsured, as they mostly were, are directed, ordered by the Clergy: they are in general the servants and agents of ecclesiastics. In every king-

* The observant Chaucer gives the converse. Physicians were even then under the evil fame of irreligion. | "His studie was but littel on the Bible." Prologue on the Doctor of Physique.

dom of Europe the Clergy form one of the estates, balance or blindly lead the nobles ; and this too not merely as churchmen and enrolled in the higher service of God, but from their felt and acknowledged pre-eminence in the administration of temporal affairs.

To this recognised intellectual superiority—arising out of the power of selecting the recruits for their army according to their mental stature, their sole possession of the discipline necessary to train such men for their loftier position, and the right of choosing, as it were, their officers out of this chosen few—must be added their spiritual authority, their indefeasible power of pre-declaring the eternal destiny of every living layman. To doubt the sentence of that eternal destiny was now an effort of daring as rare as it was abhorrent to the common sense of men. Those who had no religion had superstition ; those who believed not trembled and were silent ; the speculative unbeliever, if there were such, shrouded himself in secrecy from mankind, even from himself : the unuttered lawless thought lay deep in his own heart. Those who openly doubted the unlimited power of the clergy to absolve were sects, outcasts of society, proscribed not only by the detestation of the clergy, but by the popular hatred. The keys of heaven and hell were absolutely in the hands of the priesthood—even more, in this life they were not without influence. In the events of war, in the distribution of earthly misery or blessing, abundance or famine, health or pestilence, they were the intercessors with the saints, as the saints were intercessors with heaven. They were invested in a kind of omniscience. Confession, since the decree of the Lateran Council under Innocent III., an universal, obligatory, indispensable duty, laid open the whole heart of every one, from the Emperor to the peasant, before

the priesthood; the entire moral being of man, undistinguishable from his religious being, was under their supervision and control, asserted on one side, acknowledged on the other. No act was beyond their cognisance, no act, hardly any thought, was secret. They were at once a government and a police, to which every one was bound to inform against himself, to be the agent of the most rigid self-delation, to endure the closest scrutiny, to be denied the least evasion or equivocation, to be submitted to the moral torture of menaced, of dreaded damnation if he concealed or disguised the truth, to undergo the most crushing, humiliating penance. Absolution, after which the soul thirsted with insatiable thirst, might be delayed, held in suspense, refused; if granted it was of inestimable price. The sacraments, absolutely necessary to spiritual life, were at their disposal. Baptism to the infant would hardly be refused; but the Eucharist, Christ himself offered on the altar, God made by consecrated hands, God materialised down to the rudest apprehension, could be granted or withheld according to the arbitrary, irresponsible judgement of the priest. The body, after death, might repose in consecrated ground with the saints, or be cast out, to be within the domain, the uncontested prey of devils. The Excommunication cut the man off, whatever his rank or station, from the Church, beyond whose pale was utter impossibility of salvation. No one could presume to have hope for a man who died under excommunication. Such were the inculcated, by most recognised, at least apprehended, doctrines. The Interdict, the special prerogative of the Pope, as the antagonist, the controller of Sovereigns, smote a kingdom with spiritual desolation, during which the niggardly and imperfect rites, the baptism sparingly administered, the rest of the life without any religious

ceremony, the extreme unction or the last sacrament coldly vouchsafed to the chosen few, the churchyard closed against the dead, seemed to consign a whole nation, a whole generation, to irrevocable perdition.

Thus throughout the world no man could stand alone ; the priest was the universal lord of the universal human conscience. The inward assurance of faith, of rectitude, of virtue, of love of man or love of God, without the ratification of the confessor ; the witness of the spirit within, unless confirmed, avouched by the priest, was nothing. Without the passport to everlasting life, everlasting life must recede from the hopes, from the attainment of man. And by a strange yet perhaps unavoidable anomaly, the sacredness of the priest was inalienable, indelible, altogether irrespective of his life, his habits, his personal holiness or unholiness. There might be secret murmurs at the avarice, pride, licentiousness of the priest ; public opinion might even in some cases boldly hold him up to shame and obloquy, he was still priest, bishop, pope ; his sacraments lost not their efficacy, his verdict of condemnation or absolution was equally valid, all the acts of John XXIII., till his deposal, were the acts of the successor of St. Peter. And if this triumph over the latent moral indignation of mankind was the manifestation of its strength, so its oppugnancy to that indignation was its fall ; it was the premonition, the proclamation of its silent abrogation in the hearts of men. The historian has to state the fact, rather than curiously and judicially to balance the good and evil (for good there undoubtedly was, vast good in such ages of class tyrannising over class, of unintermitting war on a wide or a narrow scale, of violence, lawlessness, brutality) in this universal sacerdotal domination.

It is impossible to estimate the fluctuating proportion

between these two castes of the Christian population to each other. The number of the Secular Clergy was of course, to a certain extent, limited by the spiritual wants of the community and the means of maintenance. But it comprehended within the sacred circle of immunity and privilege a vast host of unenrolled and subordinate retainers, those who had received for some purpose of their own, some who in the ruder ages had been compelled to take the simple tonsure, some admitted to what were called the lower orders, and who in all large churches, as subdeacons, acolyths, singers, were very numerous, down to those who held more menial offices, sacristans, beadles, servants of all classes. But there was absolutely nothing to limit the number of Monks, still less that of the Friars in their four Orders, especially the disciples of S. Dominic and S. Francis. No one was too poor or too low to become a privileged and sacred Mendicant. No qualification was necessary but piety or its semblance, and that might too easily be imitated. While these Orders in the Universities boasted of the most erudite and subtle, and all-accomplished of the Schoolmen, they could not disdain or altogether reject those who in the spirit, at least of one of their Founders, maintained the superiority of holy ignorance. Instead of being amazed that the Friars swarmed in such hordes over Christendom, it is rather wonderful that the whole abject and wretched peasantry, rather than be trampled to the earth, or maddened to Flagellatism, Jacquerie, or Communism, did not all turn able-bodied religious Beggars, so the strong English sense of Wycliffe designates the great mass of the lower Franciscans in England. The Orders themselves, as was natural when they became wealthy and powerful, must have repressed rather than encouraged the enrolment of

such persons; instead of prompting to the utmost, they must have made it a distinction, a difficulty, a privilege, to be allowed to enter upon the enjoyment of their comparatively easy, roving, not by all accounts too severe, life. To the serf inured to the scanty fare and not unfrequent famine, the rude toil and miserable lodging; and to the peasant with his skin hard to callousness and his weather-beaten frame, the fast, the maceration, even the flagellation of the Friar, if really religious (and to the religious these self-inflicted miseries were not without their gratification), must have been no very rigorous exchange; while the freedom to the serf, the power of wandering from the soil to which he was bound down, the being his own property, not that of another, must have been a strong temptation. The door must have been closed with some care; some stern examination, probation, or inquiry, must have preceded the initiation and the adoption of brethren into the fraternity, or the still enlarging houses had been too narrow; they would have multiplied into unmanageable numbers. Yet, if more cold and repulsive in the admission of those humbler votaries, the protests of the Universities, and other proofs, show that the more promising and higher youth were sought with ardent proselytism.^b

The property, especially the territorial and landed property of the Hierarchy and the Monastic Orders, it is equally impossible to estimate. It varied, of course, in different ages, and in every kingdom in Christendom.

^b On the degenerate state of the Friars the serious prose and the satirical poetry are full of details. Read too the Supplication of Beggars (a later production, temp. Henry VIII), and the immitable Colloquies of Eras-

mus. One of the reasons alleged at the Council of Trent against submitting the regulars to episcopal discipline was their "numero eccessivo."—Sarp, li. p. 158. Ed. Helmstadt.

Nor if we knew at any one time the proportionate extent of Church lands to that not under mortmain, would it be any measure, or any sure criterion, of their relative value. This property, instead of standing secure in its theoretic inalienability, was in a constant fluctuation: the Papal territory itself was frequently during the darker centuries usurped, recovered, granted away, resumed. Throughout Christendom the legal inalienability of Church lands was perpetually assailed in earlier times by bold depredators, and baffled by ingenious devices of granting away the usufruct. We have heard perpetual complaints against these kinds of endowments of their sons or descendants by the married clergy; the unmarried yet dissolute or extravagant beneficiaries, were no doubt as regardless of the sanctity of ecclesiastical property, and as subtle in conveying away its value to their kinsmen, or for their own immediate advantage. Besides all these estates, held in absolute property, was the tithe of the produce of all other lands.* The whole sacerdotal system of Latin Christianity, first from analogy, afterwards as direct precedent, assumed all the privileges, powers, rights, endowments of the Levitical priesthood; and thus arraying itself in the irrefragable authority of God's older Word, of which it did not acknowledge the abrogation where its interests were so nearly concerned, claimed the tithe as of inherent, perpetual, divine law. From an early period Christians had been urged to devote this proportion of their wealth to religious uses; a proportion so easy and natural that it had prevailed, and had obtained a prescriptive autho-

* Hallam has summed up (Middle Ages, c. vii) with his usual judgment and accuracy what is most im-

portant on this subject, in Father Paul, Muratori, Giannone, Fleury, and Schmidt.

rit, as the rule of sacred oblation to the temples among the customs of many Heathen nations.^d The perpetual claim to tithes was urged by Councils and by Popes in the sixth century. Charlemagne throughout his empire, King Ethelwolf, and, later, Edward the Confessor in England, either overawed by the declared authority of the Old Testament, or thinking it but a fair contribution to the maintenance of public worship and for other religious uses, gave the force of civil law to this presumed sacred obligation. During several centuries it was urged by the preachers, not merely as an indispensable part of Christian duty, but as a test of Christian perfection.^e

Tithe was first received by the Bishop, and distributed by him in three or in four portions; to himself, to the clergy, for the fabric of the churches, for the poor. But all kinds of irregularities crept into the simple and stately uniformity of this universal tax and its administration. It was retained by the Bishop; the impoverished clergy murmured at their meagre and disproportionate share. As the parochial divisions became slowly and irregularly distinct and settled, it was in many cases, but by no means universally, attached to the cure of souls. The share of the fabric became uncertain and fluctuating, till at length other means were found for the erection and the maintenance of the Church buildings. The more splendid Prelates and Chapters, aided by the piety of Kings, Barons, and rich men, disdained this fund, so

^d In the controversy which arose on the publication of Selden's book on Tithes, the High Church writers, Montague and Tildesley, were diffuse and triumphant in their quotations from Heathen writers, as though, by show-

ing the concurrence of universal religion with the Mosaic institutes, to make out tithes to be a part of Natural Religion. See abstract of their arguments in Collier.

^e Paolo Sarpi, quoted by Mr. Hallam.

insufficient for their magnificent designs ; the building of churches was exacted from the devotion or the superstition of the laity in general, conjointly with the munificence of the ecclesiastics. So, too, the right of the poor to their portion became a freewill contribution, measured by the generosity or the wealth of the Clergy ; here a splendid, ever-flowing largess ; there a parsimonious, hardly-extracted dole.

The tithe suffered the fate of other Church property ; it was at times seized, alienated, appropriated by violence or by fraud. It was retained by the Bishops or wealthy clergy, who assigned a miserable stipend to a poor Vicar ; it fell into the hands of lay impropiators, who had either seized it, or, on pretence of farming it, provided in the cheapest manner for the performance of the service ; the Monasteries got possession of it in large portions, and served the cures from their Abbey or Cloister. In England it was largely received by foreign Beneficiaries, who never saw the land from which they received this tribute.

Still, however levied, however expended, however invaded by what were by some held to be sacrilegious hands, much the larger part of this tenth of all the produce of the land throughout Christendom, with no deduction, except the moderate expense of collection, remained in the hands of the Hierarchy. It was gradually extended from the produce of land to all other produce, cattle, poultry, even fish.

The High Aristocracy of the Church, from the Pope to the member of the capitular body, might not disdain to participate in this, which ought to have been the exclusive patrimony of the parochial and labouring clergy ; but their estates, which were Lordships, Baronages, Princedoms, in the Pope a kingdom, were what

placed them on a level with, or superior to, the Knights, Barons, Princes, Kings of the world.

These possessions throughout Latin Christendom, both of the Seculars and of the Monasteries, if only calculated from their less clerical expenditure, on their personal pomp and luxury, on their wars, on their palaces, and from their more honourable prodigality on their cathedrals, churches, monastic buildings, must have been enormous; and for some period were absolutely exempt from contribution to the burthens of the State.^f We have seen the first throes and struggles of Papal nepotism; we have seen bold attempts to quarter the kinsmen of Popes on the territories of the Papacy, to create noble patrimonies, or even principalities, in their favour; but there is no Papal family of the time preceding Nicolas V. which boasts its hereditary opulence or magnificent palace, like the Riarios, Farneses, Barberinis, Corsinis, of later times. The Orsinis and Colonnas were Princes created Popes, not descendants of Popes. The vast wealth of the Archbishopric of Milan has shone before us; an Archbishop was the founder of the Ducal House of Visconti. In Italy, however, in general, the Prelates either never possessed or were despoiled of the vast wealth which distinguished the Ultramontane Prelates. Romagna had become the Papal domain; Ravenna had been compelled to yield up her rival territory. The Crusades had not thrown the lands into their hands by the desertion of their lords. In the commercial wealth of Venice, Genoa, Pisa, Florence, they had no share. At Constance, as it has appeared, the Ultramontanes feared that the poverty of the Italian Bishops would

^f Some estates of the Church were held on the tenure of military service, most in Franchmoigne.—Hallam.

place them at the command of the Pope. In Germany the Prince-Archbishops, the Electors, were not scrupulous in extending the wide pale of their ecclesiastical principalities. The grant of estates, of territories, was too common a bribe or a reward from a doubtful aspirant to the Imperial throne. How many fiefs held by Mentz, by Trèves, and by Cologne, dated from the eve of, or from the coronation of an Emperor, raised to the throne after a severe contest! Among the other Prince-Prelates of the Empire, distracted as Germany was for centuries by wars between the Popes and the Emperors, wars between the Emperor and his refractory subjects, their power was perpetually increasing their wealth, their wealth aggrandising their power. They were too useful allies not to be subsidised by the contending parties; and those subsidies, being mostly in grants of lands, enhanced the value of their alliance.

In France, the prodigality of the weaker Kings of each race, and each race successively, from the fainéant Merovingians, seemed to dwindle down into inevitable weakness, had vied with each other in heaping estates upon the clergy, and in founding and endowing monasteries. If the later Kings, less under strong religious impulses, and under heavier financial embarrassments, were less prodigal,—if the mass of secular ecclesiastical property is of earlier date,*—few reigns passed without

* The Abbe Maury, in the debate on the confiscation of church property, asserted that the tenure of some of their estates was older than Clovis (Lamartine, *Les Constituants*, iii. p. 113.) In the debates on the confiscation of church property in the National Assembly in 1789, 1790, M. Talleyrand estimated the income of the

clergy from tithes at eighty millions of francs, from the lands at seventy millions; total one hundred and fifty millions. This, I presume, did not include the lands, at least not the houses of the monasteries. (Buchon et Roux, *Hist. Parlementaire de la Rév. Française*, iii. p. 156.) In the proposal for the suppression of the

the foundation of some religious houses. The Mendicant Orders had their spacious and splendid convents in Paris,^h and in the other great cities of France.¹

In England the Statute of Mortmain had been the National Protest against the perpetual encroachment of the Church on the landed property of the realm. At length the subtlety of the Lawyers baffled the subtlety of the Churchmen; the strong, stern Law could be neither infringed nor eluded. But it left the Church in possession of all which had been heaped at her feet by the prodigal Anglo-Saxon Kings, and the Normans hardly less prodigal. If it had not passed down absolutely undiminished, it had probably on the whole been constantly enlarging its borders; if usurped, or its usufruct, if not the fee, fraudulently made away,^k it had in many cases widely extended itself by purchase, as well as by donation and bequest.¹

There are four periods at which public documents

religious houses, M. Treilhard declared that four hundred millions might be produced by the sale of the monastic houses, which might be secularised. Those in Paris alone might be sold for one hundred and fifty millions. A calculation was produced, made in 1775, that at 15 *livres* the toise, they would yield 217,309,000 *livres*. In another report it was stated that the clergy held one-fifth of the net revenue from land in France, amounting to two hundred millions, exclusive of the tithe. (T. v. p. 328.)

^h See Dulaure, *Hist. de Paris*, a book with much valuable information, but hostile to the clergy.

¹ At the Revolution six Orders had three houses in Paris, some others two. They must have amounted to between

forty and fifty.

^k Churches were leased to laymen, and without doubt became their actual property; as such were bought and sold.

¹ The Church bought largely. The statute "*Quia Emptores*" shows abundantly that the possessions of the Church were greatly increased by purchase as well as by donation and bequest. It was a very common practice to purchase an estate in reversion, or to purchase and grant the estate to the former Lord for his life. on his death (*si obire contingat*) it fell to the Church. Few rich men entered a monastery without bringing some estate or provision with them, which became the inalienable property of the Community. See instances in Taylor's *Index Monasticus*.

seem at first sight to throw a steady and distinct light on the extent and value of church property in England, *its actual if not its relative value.* Yet on examination the result of the inquiry becomes dim, confused, and contradictory. It offers no more than a very rude and uncertain approximation to positive conclusions.

I. Domesday-Book gives the lands in the possession of ecclesiastics, as well as lay holders, those of bishops, chapters, churches, monasteries. The first inspection of Domesday may seem to present startling facts. In the whole County of Kent, besides the King (with whom the Churches of St. Martin in Dover and the Church of Canterbury share those towns), appear as landowners:— 1. The Archbishop of Canterbury; 2. His Monks (Christ-church); 3. The Bishop of Rochester; 4. The Bishop of Bayeux;^m 5. The Abbey of Battle; 6. St. Augustine's; 7. Abbey of St. Peter's, Ghent. Only four knights, and Albert the Chaplain. In Middlesex are the King, the Archbishop, the Bishop of London, his Canons (of St. Paul's), the Abbot of Westminster, the Abbot of the Holy Trinity in Rouen, the Abbot of Barking, with eighteen others, barons and knights. In Worcestershire the King, the Church of Worcester, the Bishop of Hereford, the Church of St. Denys near Paris, the Church of Cormelics, the Abbeys of Westminster, Pershore, Evesham; the Bishop of Bayeux, the Church of St. Guthlac, the Clerks of Wrehampton, with fifteen laymen. In Berkshire, among sixty-three holders, are the King, five Bishops, among them Durham and Coutances, ten Abbots and Abbesses. In Devonshire, of fifty-three, are the King, two Bishops, Exeter and Coutances, ten abbeyes,

^m Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, held lands in sixteen counties.—Sir H. Ellis, Introduction.

among them Rouen, Mont St. Michael, St. Stephen and Holy Trinity at Caen. During the reign of our Norman sovereigns these transmarine monasteries held their lands in England. They were either cells or dependent priories which sent their revenues across the sea. As England and France became hostile powers they were gradually seized, till at length, in the time of Henry V., they were confiscated by the strong hand of the law, and vested by Act of Parliament in the Crown.ⁿ Our history has dwelt, on more than one occasion, on the estates and benefices held by foreign prelates, chiefly Italians.

II. The valuation made in the reign of Edward I., by order of Pope Nicolas IV. The whole ecclesiastical property was assessed at rather more than 200,000*l.*, a valuation much higher than had been admitted before; the tenth levied was above 20,000*l.*^o

III. The remarkable petition of the Commons to Henry IV.,^p for the confiscation of the whole Church property and its appropriation to the maintenance of a nobility, knighthood, squirehood, burghership, and alms-houses, retaining only a priesthood of 15,000, without distinction of Orders, and on the annual stipend of seven marks each. This wild revolutionary scheme estimated the temporalities of the Church at 322,000 marks a year.^q They were thrown together in large masses, each of 20,000, as—1. The see of Canterbury, with the abbeys of Christchurch, St. Augustine, Shrewsbury, Coggleshall, St. Osyth. 2. York (not including Fontaines, Rivaux,

ⁿ Ellis, Introduction to Domesday. Fox, ii. p. 725, A.D. 1410.
Collier, i. p. 650.

^o See vol. vii. p. 54, and note, for the details, A.D. 1292.

^q That is (calculating the mark at two thirds of a pound, 13*s.* 4*d.*), nearly the same as the Papal valuation.

^p Walsingham, p. 379. Intro. ation.

and some other abbeys). 3. Six of the larger abbeys, Dover, Battle, Lewes, Coventry, Daventry, and Tournay (Thorney?) make up another 20,000.^r The total estimate of the Church property may seem to have been based on the valuation of Pope Nicolas, the established cataster which had been acted upon for above a century. It is curious, however, as setting down the annual income necessary to maintain the state of an Earl at 3000 marks; of a Knight at 100, with four plough-lands; an Esquire 40, with two plough-lands. How the poor Priest was to live on his seven marks, unless by the bounty and hospitality of his parishioners—certainly with no hospitality or almsgiving of his own—these early levellers seem not to have thought.^s About this period, according to another statement, there were in England 46,822 churches, 52,285 villæ, 53,225 military fiefs, of which the ecclesiastics and religious held 28,000. Thus they were in possession of above one-half of the knights' fees in the realm.^t

^r Walsingham seems to say that they were set to prove this vast wealth of the clergy, and failed: "*Sed cum niterentur ostendere de quibus locis tam grandes summæ levare possent, unde præmissa dotarentur vel ditarentur, defecerunt scrutantes scrutinio et dum diligunt vanitatem quærivere mendacium.*"

^s This concurrence, which is at least approximate, may appeal to be of higher authority than the calculation drawn from a passage of Knighton, which would more than double the amount of church property. In the year 1337 two Cardinal Legates came to England. They received for their expenses 50 marks a day, which was raised by four pennies from every bene-

fice, exempt or not exempt. The revenue of the Church would thus amount to 2000 marks a day; multiplied by 365, 730,000 marks; nearly 500,000*l*. Macpherson's *Annals of Commerce*, i. 519, Hallam. But the Valoi of Pope Nicolas was framed by those who wished as much as possible to elude or lighten their taxation.

^t This rests on a passage in the Appendix to Hearne's *Avebury*. Mr. Sharon Turner, v. 166, quotes it. Mr. Hallam appears to accept its results, *Middle Ages*, ii. p. 506. Other authorities, quoted in Taylor, p. xxiii., make 60,215 knights' fees; those held by the clergy, 23,115. *Spelman* brings down the proportion to a third; so too Sir W. Temple.

IV. The valuation of the whole church property, immediately before the suppression of the larger monasteries,^a as compared with that of Nicolas IV., might be expected to furnish at once a positive and a relative estimate of the Church possessions. In the Act for the suppression of the smaller monasteries,^{*} those with an income under 200*l.* a year, it was supposed that about 380 communities would be dissolved (about 100 then escaped or eluded dissolution), and that the Crown would derive 32,000*l.* of yearly revenue from the confiscation, with 100,000*l.* in plate, jewels, money, and other valuables. After the suppression of the larger monasteries,[†] the amount of the whole revenue escheated to the Crown was calculated at 161,000*l.*[‡] A little before this period the revenue of England from lands and possessions had been calculated at 4,000,000*l.*:[§] the monastic property, therefore, was not more than a twentieth part of the national property. To this must be added the whole Church property that remained, that of the Bishops, Chapters, Colleges, and Parochial Clergy.^b The

^a Ann. Hen. VIII. 26, A.D. 1534, published by the Record Commission, to be compared with Speed's Catalogue of Religious Houses, Benefices, &c. On the revenues of the monasteries, see Dugdale and Stevens, Mr. Nasmith's excellent edition of Tanner's Notitia. No book is more instructive than the Index Monasticus of the diocese of Norwich, by Mr. Richd. Taylor, London, 1821.

^{*} Burnet, 192, 222. Rymer, xiv. 574. Stevens, Appendix to Dugdale. Lingard, c. iv. Burnet gives 131,607*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.* for the larger monasteries, but adds, "*it was at least ten times the sum in true value.*"

[†] Loid Heibert; Speed; Hume, c. 31.

[‡] It is singular that these two sums amount to near 200,000*l.* The whole property of the Church, according to the valuation of Nicolas IV., stood at about 204,000*l.*, so that the value of Monastic property was then near that of the whole Church property under Edward I.

[§] This is stated by Hume, and on such a subject Hume was likely to be accurate, but he does not give his authority. Vol. i. p. 485; ii. p. 106.

^b One insulated point of comparison has offered itself. According to the Valor of Nicolas, Christ Church, Can-

Valor Ecclesiasticus of Henry VIII. offers no sum total; but, according to Speed, the whole value was 320,150*l.* 10*s.* If of this, 186,512*l.* 8*s.* 11½*d.* was the gross value of that of the monasteries (the sum escheated to the King, 161,000*l.*), the secular property was about half of the whole. Together the two sums would amount to a tenth of the revenue of the kingdom as estimated by Hume.^c

But this estimate is very fallacious,^d both as to the extent and the actual value^e of the Church property. As to the extent, in London and the neighbouring counties of Middlesex, Surrey, Essex, the Church lands, or at least the lands in which the Church had some tenure, must have been enormous. Hardly a parish in Middlesex did not belong, certainly so far as manorial rights, to the Bishop of London, the Dean and Chapter

tenbury, was assessed at 355*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.*, under Henry VIII. at 2,349*l.* 8*s.* 5*d.*, an increase of about seven times.

^c When, by Bishop Burnet's advice (Burnet's *Own Times*, edit. Oxford, v. p. 118), the First Fruits and Tenths were made over to the Board, called Queen Anne's Bounty, the tenths were reckoned at 11,000*l.*, which has now remained unaltered, according to the valuation of Henry VIII. This would make the property 111,000*l.* Speed gives 111,207*l.* 14*s.* 2*d.*, but a certain portion had been appropriated to the few Bishops and Chapters, which makes up the total.

^d Some of the richer monasteries had sunk to a small oligarchy. Chertsey, with 14 monks, had 740*l.* a year; Furness, with 30, 966*l.* It is curious to compare Hume and Lingard. Both select Furness as their example (Hume

puts Furness in Lincolnshire). Hume gives the small number of monks as compared with the great income; on the signal iniquity of the mode in which the suppression was enforced he is silent. Lingard is coldly eloquent, as is his wont, on the iniquity—of the small number of monks not a word.

^e On the important question of the relative value of money at that time and the present, taking in the joint consideration of weight of silver and price of provisions, Mr. Taylor, in 1821, would multiply by 15 times. Land in Norfolk let from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* an acre; wages for a hay-maker were, during Henry VII. and Henry VIII., 1*d.* to 1½*d.* a day. The whole ecclesiastical revenues in the diocese of Norwich would be worth 510,000*l.* a year.

of St. Paul's, the Abbot and monks of Westminster, and other religious houses—the Carthusians, St. John's Clerkenwell (the Hospitallers), Sion, and many smaller foundations. The Chapter of St. Paul's swept in a broad belt round the north of London till they met the Church of Westminster at Hampstead and Paddington.⁴ The Abbot of Westminster was almost a prince of Westminster.⁵

On the other hand, the estates and manors of the Church and of the monasteries, though, as probably having been the longest under cultivation, the best cultivated, in productive value were far below their imagined wealth. The Church was by usage, perhaps from interest, an indulgent landlord. Of the estates, a large part had become copyhold, and paid only a moderate quit-rent, and a small fixed fine on renewal. Of those on which the Church reserved the full fee, the fines on renewals, whether on lives or for terms of years, were no doubt extremely moderate. They had become hereditary in families, and acquired the certainty of actual possession. The rents were paid in money, usually of small amount, in services to the landlord (the Prebendary or the Church), in the cultivation of their lands, and to a considerable extent in kind. Probably the latter contribution was not taken into the account of their value. But not only had each monastery its common refectory, each Chapter had its common establishment, its common table, its horses, and other conveniences, largely supplied

⁴ Archdeacon Hale has printed (for the Camden Society) what he calls the Domesday of St. Paul; the Visitation of the manors of the Dean and Chapter (not the separate estates of the prebendaries). It throws great light on this point, as well as on the tenure

and condition of the Church property.

⁵ At the Dissolution Westminster was the most wealthy monastery—it was estimated at 5977*l.*; St. John's, Clerkenwell, the richest of the military orders, 2385*l.*; Sion, the richest nunnery, 1944*l.*.—Speed.

by the growers; hay and straw, beasts, poultry furnished at specified times by the tenants. Each had its mill, its brewhouse, its bakery; and no doubt the annual expenses of the House, or Domus, were to a large extent supplied from these unreckoned sources.^b Yet on the whole the tenants, no doubt, of the Church shared a full portion of the wealth of the Church, so secure and easy was their tenure; and it was not uncommon for ecclesiastics to take beneficiary leases of the lands of their own Church, which they bequeathed as property to their kindred or heirs, not unfrequently to their children. Besides this, over all their property the Church had a host of officers and retainers, stewards of their courts, receivers, proctors, lawyers, and other dependents, numberless in name and function.

But of the wealth of the Clergy, the landed property, even with the tithe, was by no means the whole; and, invaded as it was by aggression, by dilapidation, by alienation through fraud or violence, limited in its productiveness by usage, by burthens, by generosity, by maladministration, it may be questioned whether it was the largest part. The vast treasures accumulated by the Avignonese Pontiffs when the Papal territories were

^b All this throws light on a very curious state of things at St. Paul's; no doubt not peculiar to St. Paul's. The Chapter consisted of 30 Prebendaries, each with his separate estate, and originally his right to share in the common fund, on condition of performing certain services in the Church. The Prebendaries withdrew each to the care and enjoyment of his Prebend, or, if a Pluralist, of many Prebends, leaving the duties to be performed by certain Residentiaries; so when the

daily mass, the perpetual office, was imposed as a burthen, it was difficult to keep up the number of Residentiaries. In process of time the Common Fund grew larger, the emoluments and advantages from oblations, obits, and other sources increased in value; there was then a strife and a press to become a Residentiary. It was necessary (the exhausted fund was the plea) to obtain Papal or Archiepiscopal decrees to limit the number of Residentiaries.

occupied by enemies or adventurers, and could have yielded but scanty revenues, testify to the voluntary or compulsory tribute paid by Western Christendom to her Supreme Court of Appeal. If the Bishops mainly depended on their endowments, to the Clergy, to the monastic churches, oblations (in many cases now from free gifts hardened into rightful demands) were pouring in, and had long been pouring in, with incalculable profusion. Not only might not the altars, hardly any part of the church might be approached, without a votive gift. The whole life, the death of every Christian was bound up with the ceremonial of the Church; for almost every office, was received from the rich and generous the ampler donation, from the poorer or more parsimonious was exacted the hard-wrung fee. Above all, there were the masses, which might lighten the sufferings of the soul in purgatory; there was the prodigal gift of the dying man out of selfish love for himself;¹ the more generous and no less prodigal gift of the bereaved, out of holy charity for others. The dying man, from the King to the peasant, when he had no further use for his worldly riches, would devote them to this end;² the living, out of profound respect or deep affection for the beloved husband, parent, brother, kinsman, friend, would be, and actually was, not less bountiful and munificent.³

¹ I am able to illustrate this from the records of St. Paul's, which have been investigated with singular industry and accuracy by my friend Archdeacon Hale, to whom I am indebted for much valuable information.

² There is another curious illustration of the wealth of the Clergy. The inventory of the effects of Richard Gravesend, Bishop of London, from 1290 to 1303. It measures 28 feet

in length: it gives in detail all his possessions, his chapel (plate of the chapel), jewels, robes, books, horses, the grain and stock on each of his manors, with the value of each. The total amounts to 2871*l.* 7*s.* 10½*d.* Corn was then 4*s.* per quarter.

³ We have in St. Paul's an account of the obits or anniversaries of the deaths of certain persons, for the celebration of which bequests had been

Add to all this the oblations at the crosses of the Redeemer, or the shrines of popular and famous saints, for their intercessory prayers to avert the imminent calamity, to assuage the sorrow, or to grant success to the schemes, it might be, of ambition, avarice, or any other passion, to obtain pardon for sin, to bring down blessing: crosses and shrines, many of them supposed to be endowed with miraculous powers, constantly working miracles.^a To most of these were made *perpetual processions, led by the Clergy in their rich attire*. From the basins of gold or the bright florins of the King to the mite of the beggar, all fell into the deep, insatiable box, which unlocked its treasures to the Clergy.^o

made in the fourteenth century. The number was 111. The payments made amounted in the whole to 2678s. 5½d., of which the Dean and Canons Residentiary (present) received 1461s., about 78l.; multiply by 15, to bring to present value, 1075l.

^a E. g, Richard Preston, citizen and grocer, gave to the shrine of St. Eikenwald his best sapphire stone, for curing of infirmities of the eyes, appointing that proclamation should be made of its virtues.—Dugdale, p. 21.

^o We have an account of the money found in the box under the great Cross on the entrance of the Cathedral (*Recepta de pixide Crucis Borealis*). In one month (May, A.D. 1344) it yielded no less than 50l. (*præter argentum fractum*). This was more than an average profit, but taken as an average it gives 600l. per annum. Multiply this by 15 to bring it to the present value of money, 9000l. This, by an order of the Pope's Commissary, A.D. 1410 (Dugdale, p. 20), was di-

vided among the Dean and Canons Residentiary. But this was by no means the only box of offerings—perhaps not the richest. There was one at the magnificent shrine of St. Erikenwald, another at that of the Virgin, before which the offerings of wax tapers alone were so valuable, that the Dean and Chapter would no longer leave them to the vergers and servants of the Church. They were extinguished, carried to a room behind the chapter-house, and melted, for the use of the said Dean and Canons. Archbishop Arundel assigned to the same Dean and Canons, and to their successors for ever, the whole profits of the oblation box. Dugdale recounts gifts by King John of France, especially to the shrine of St. Erikenwald. The shrine of St. Thomas at Canterbury received in one year 832l. 11s. 3d.; in another, 954l. 6s. 3d.—Burnet, *Hist. Reformat.*, vol. 1. See Taylor, *Index for our Lady of Walsingham*. Our Chantry accounts are full and well

Besides all these estates, tithes, oblations, bequests to the Clergy and the monasteries, reckon the subsidies in kind to the Mendicants in their four Orders—Dominicans, Franciscans, Augustinians, Carmelites. In every country of Latin Christendom, of these swarms of Friars, the lowest obtained sustenance: the higher means to build and to maintain splendid churches, cloisters, houses. All of these, according to their proper theory, ought to have lived on the daily dole from the charitable, bestowed at the gate of the palace or castle, of the cottage or hovel. But that which was once an act of charity had become an obligation. Who would dare to repel a holy Mendicant? The wealth of the Mendicants was now an object of bitter jealousy to the Clergy and to the older monastic Orders. They were a vast standing army, far more vast than any maintained by any kingdom in Christendom, at once levying subsidies to an enormous amount, and living at free quarters throughout the land. How onerous, how odious they had become in England, may be seen in the prose of Wycliffe and in the poetry of Piers Ploughman.^p

The Clergy, including the Monks and Friars, were one throughout Latin Christendom; and through them, to a great extent, the Latin Church was one. Unity of
the clergy. Whatever antagonism, feud, hatred, estrangement, might rise between rival Prelates, rival Priests, rival Orders—whatever irreconcilable jealousy there might be between the Seculars and Regulars—yet the

preserved, and would furnish a very curious illustration of the office and income of the Mass Priest.

^p Later, Speed, from the Supplication of Beggars, asserts, as demonstrated, that, reckoning that every

householder paid the five Orders five-pence a year only, the sum of 43,000*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* was paid them by the year, besides the revenues of their own lands.

Caste seldom, and but on rare occasions, betrayed the interest of the Caste. The high-minded Churchman, who regarded his country more than the Church, was not common; the renegade, who pursued his private interests by sacrificing those of his Order, might be more so; but he stood alone, a hated and despised apostate. There might be many traitors from passion, ignorance, obstinacy, blindness to its interests—few premeditated and deliberate deserters of its cause. The Clergy in general (there were noble exceptions) were first the subjects of the Pope, then the subjects of the temporal Sovereign. The Papal Legate, the Proconsul of the Pope, the co-Ruler with the King, was not dependant on the reception of a cold perhaps or hostile Court; he could almost command, rarely did not receive, the unlimited homage of the Clergy: to him was due their first obedience. The Pope claimed and long maintained the sole right of taxation of ecclesiastical property; only under his authority could that property be assessed by the State. This general taxation by the Pope began during the Crusades, for that holy purpose; it was continued for all other Crusades which he might command, and was extended to his general uses; he condescended from time to time to throw some part, in his bounty, to the temporal Sovereign;¹ but, in theory, the right was in him and in him alone. It was asserted over the whole of Christendom, and made him, as the guardian, so in some respects the Suzerain of Church property throughout the world. The allegiance of the hierarchy to the Church was at once compulsory and voluntary; the Pope's awful

¹ It is curious to see the words "*caritativum subsidium*" creep into the more weak demands of the Popes during the schism.—MS. B. M. *passim* at that period.

powers held in check, the constant inevitable tendency to rebellion and contumacy, which was usually that of individual Prelates or small factions. Among themselves the Clergy could not but at times split into parties on temporal or religious subjects; but if the Papal or hierarchical authority lost ground by their turbulence or their divisions, they were soon driven back to an unanimity of dependance on the Papal power by the encroachments of the State, or to settle their own disputes. They fled from ruder tyrants to the throne of St. Peter. The Pope was at least a more impartial judge than their rival or antagonist—mostly than the civil ruler. On the whole the Order of the Clergy was one from the utmost East to the farther West, from the North to the South.

The universal fraternity of the Monastic Orders and of the Friars was even more intimate. Everywhere, from the Scottish islands to the Spanish frontier of Christendom, the Benedictine, the Clugniac, the Cistercian, might find a home; the abbey of his brethren opened to him its hospitable doors. This was of less importance to the elder and more sedentary Orders (they, too, travelled, a few in search of learning—most who did leave their homes, as pilgrims to Rome, to other famous shrines; or to the East): but to the wandering Friars, who spread all over Europe, of what incalculable advantage to find everywhere brethren connected with them by a closer, as they thought a holier tie, than that of kindred or consanguinity; a ready auditory prepared by the tertiaries of the Order; allies in their invasion on the parishes of the secular priests; a crowd of admirers of their learning, which added fame and so strength to their Order, and of their zeal or eloquence, which brought in new

proselytes; abettors and maintainers of their influence, which was still wringing further wealth for the Order from the timid living or the remorseful dying man. This all-comprehending fraternisation had the power, and some of the mystery, without the suspicion and hatred which attaches to secret societies. It was a perpetual campaign, set in motion and still moving on with simultaneous impulse from one or from several centres, but with a single aim and object, the aggrandisement of the Society, with all its results for evil or for good.

The Clergy had their common language throughout Western Christendom. In their intercourse with each other they needed no interpreter. This was far more than their bond; it was among the most lasting guarantees of their power. It was not from their intellectual superiority alone, but from their almost exclusive possession of the universal European language, that they held and retained the administration of public affairs. No royal Embassy was without its Prelate, even if the Ambassadors were not all Prelates, for they only could converse freely together without mutual misunderstanding of their barbarous jargon, or the precarious aid of an interpreter. The Latin alone was as yet sufficiently precise and definite in its terms to form binding treaties; it was the one language current throughout Europe; it was of necessity that of all negotiations between distant kingdoms.

Hence, too, in some respects, the Churchman was of all countries. His knowledge, at least the knowledge of the Churchman who moved beyond the bounds of his narrow parish, of the universal Latin—the ability (in theory possessed by all) to officiate in the unchangeable service of the Church—was the only indispensable

qualification for any dignity or benefice throughout Christendom. Latin Christianity had invaded the East, and planted Latin Bishops to celebrate Latin services almost throughout the Byzantine Empire. German Popes, French Popes, one English Pope, a Portuguese, a Greek or Calabrese Antipope, have occupied or have aspired to the throne of St. Peter: none of them were foreigners in tongue. All Christendom, especially England, saw their richest benefices held by strangers, ignorant of the native language, and these did not always hold their remote cures as honours and appendages to their Italian dignities, but visited them at least occasionally, and had no difficulty in going through the routine of religious service.* There might be bitter complaints of the imperfect fulfilment of duty: conscientious men might refuse preferment among a people of strange language; but there was no legal or canonical disqualification; all that could be absolutely demanded was the ability to recite or chant the Latin breviary; no clergyman was a stranger or foreigner among the Clergy in any European kingdom.

That ubiquity of the Clergy, as belonging to one Order, under one head, under one law and discipline, speaking a common language, to a certain extent with common habits of life, was of inestimable importance, as holding together the great commonwealth of European nations, in antagonism to the Eastern races, aggregated into one horde by the common bond of the Koran. Had the Christian kingdoms grown up sepa-

* I have noticed (vol. vi. p. 84) the pluralist who held the archdeaconry of Thessalonica with benefices in Norfolk. scrupulousness in refusing the Archbishopric of Cashel, on account of his ignorance of Irish. The objection does not seem to have occurred to his patron

* Michael Scott is a rare instance of the Pope.

rate, isolated, adverse, even if each with its independent national hierarchy, still with hardly any communication but by the war of neighbouring States with neighbouring States, and with commerce restricted, precarious, unenterprising, there must have been either one vast Asiatic despotism, founded by some mighty conqueror—a Charlemagne, without his sagacious religious as well as civil organisation—or a disruption into hard repulsive masses, a shifting and conflicting aggregate of savage tribes. There could have been no confederacy to oppose the mighty invading league of Mohammedanism. Christendom could only have a religious Capital, and that Capital in all the early period was Rome. To Rome there was a constant ebb and flow from the remotest borders of Europe, and this chiefly of the Clergy; through them, knowledge, arts, whatsoever remained of the older civilisation, circulated to the extremities. The Legate, the Nuncio, if he came to bow kings and nations to an imperious yoke and to levy tribute, brought with him the peaceful pomp, the courtly manners, the knowledge, the refinement of the South: his inalienable character was that of an emissary of peace; he had no armed retainers; he found his retainers, except the few who accompanied him, in the land which he visited—the Clergy. He might, as he too often did, belie his character of the Angel of Peace;† he might inflame civil wars, he might even set up rebellious sons against fathers, but his ostensible office was always moderation: his progress through interjacent realms, where he passed safe, respected, honoured by the deferential veneration of all the hier-

† This is the title perpetually introduced into the instructions and power given to the Cardinal or other Legates.

archy, was an homage to the representative of one, whose office at least was to promote peace; it was an universal recognition of the blessings, the sanctity of peace. However the acts of Popes, of worldly or martial Prelates, or of a rude or fierce Clergy, might be at issue with the primal principles of the faith, yet, at the same time that they practised this wide apostasy, they condemned their own apostasy; their language could not entirely throw off, far from throwing off, it dwelt ostentatiously, though against themselves, on the true and proper aim of their interference. Where war was the universal occupation, though swept away by the torrent, they were constantly lifting up their voice against war, at least against war of Christian against Christian; they would divert the whole martial impulses of Christendom against the Mohammedan. Thus for centuries, through the length and breadth of Latin Christendom, was propagated and maintained, even by those who were constantly violating and weakening their own precepts, a sympathy for better and more Christian tenets—a faint yet undying echo of the angelic annunciation of Christianity, appealing to the whole Christian priesthood, and through the priesthood to universal man; “peace on earth, good will to men.” Through the Hierarchy Christian Europe was one; and Christian Europe was at least brooding over the seeds of a richer harvest; it was preparing for a generous rivalry in laws, letters, arts, even in religion.

Another result of the ubiquitous Hierarchical influence, though not so much a result of its ubiquity as of its inalienable character, must not be passed by. It was not only a bond which held together the Christian nations, of different races and of different tongues, but in every nation of the Christian

Effects on
social rank.

commonwealth the Clergy, and the Clergy alone, held together the different ranks and classes. The old Roman prejudice of the ineffaceable distinction between the free man and the slave lurked in the minds of the aristocratic Hierarchy of the South. The Clergy could not but be deeply impregnated with the feudal respect for high birth," but they could not efface from the record of the faith, from the older traditions, to do them justice they never lost sight of, the saying of the Saviour, that the poor were their especial charge; poverty was, as it were, consecrated by the humble lives of the Lord and his Apostles. Many Popes have been seen rising from the meanest parentage to the Pontifical throne. In every kingdom some of the highest examples of Christian piety and ability, canonised Saints, were constantly drawn up from the humblest

* In the Papal dispensations we constantly find "*nobilitas generis*" spoken of with "*scientia et honestas*;" as a justification of the permission to hold benefices in plurality.—MS. B. M. passim.

I select one illustration as in every way remarkable, not the less as proceeding from Nicolas V. It is an answer to a petition from George Neville, Canon of York, son of his beloved son Richard Earl of Salisbury. "The nobility of his descent (he was even, as he said, of royal lineage) induced the Pope to grant him a dispensation (he being fourteen years old) to hold a canonry in the Church of Salisbury, with one in York. Moreover, the gracious favour of the Pope ('*tuum intuitu meritum*'), the merit of a boy of fourteen! allowed him to hold those or any other two incompatible benefices, with or without cure of

souls; even Parish Churches, or any dignities, below the highest; to hold them together, or to exchange them at his will during his whole life ('*quoad vixens*'). The provision must be added, that the benefices were to be properly served, and the cure of souls not neglected."—Rome, A.D. 1447, July?

At twenty-three years old the same George Neville was appointed Bishop of Exeter; as he could not be consecrated for four years, he had a Bull to receive the profits.—Collier, i. 874. He was afterwards Archbishop of York. See Collier, 682. I would add on pluralities that, though not noble, Wykeham, before he was Bishop, held the archdeaconry of Buckingham, the Provostship of Wells, twelve other prebends or canonries, "*sacerdotiaque cum curâ plus quam satis*."—Gedw. p. 286.

of mankind. Once a Churchman, the hallowed man took his position from his ecclesiastical rank, not from his birth or descent; that higher nobility had cancelled all the want of noble ancestry. There might be at some periods a closer brotherhood—a kind of separate corporate spirit—between ecclesiastics of high or generous lineage, but it rarely dared to be exclusive; other qualities, either worldly or religious, were allowed to dress the balance. The Bishop with royal blood in his veins was no more a Bishop than he who had sprung from the dregs of the people; he wore the same dress; according to his possessions, might display the same pomp; was often not less proud in the cathedral; not only in the cathedral, even in the royal Council he occupied the same seat; had almost as fair a chance of canonisation. The power of overleaping the line, which lay so broad and deep, between the high and low, the noble and the peasant, the lord and the serf, must have been a perpetual consolation and hope in the conscious abasement of the poor man and of the serf—a drop of sweetness in his bitter cup.

This, indeed, could be but the lot of few; and there might in the lower orders be much envy and jealousy of those who rose from their ranks to the height of Churchmanly dignity, as well as pride and emulation to vie with their success. Men do not always love and honour those who have outstripped them in the race of fortune or distinction; but, whether objects of envy or of encouragement, these were but rare: and most, no doubt, of the humbler classes who were admitted into the Hierarchy rose no higher than the meanest functions, or the privilege of becoming Holy Mendicants. But, in the darkest periods, when all other Christian virtues were nearly extinct, charity, in its form of

almsgiving, survived, and was strong; and, indeed, in institutions for the poor, hospitals, leper-houses, charity was not only recognised as a duty especially incumbent on Churchmen; it was a duty ostentatiously discharged. The haughtiest Pope condescended to imitate the Lord in washing the feet of poor men. Many of the most worldly Prelates were the most munificent; perhaps satisfied their consciences in the acquisition of unapostolic pomp and wealth by applying it to apostolic uses. The donation, the bequest, prodigally bestowed or ungraciously yielded by the remorseful sinner to the Priest or Bishop, as it was made to God and his Poor, however much of it might linger in the hands of the Clergy, and be applied to less hallowed purposes, nevertheless did not all lose its way; part of it strayed to its proper object—the assuagement of human indigence and misery. This was especially the case with the monastic establishments: it has been said that they were the poor-houses of the middle ages; but if poor-houses, like our own by no means wisely or providently administered, still they had those twofold blessings of acts of mercy—some softening of the heart of him who gave, some consolation to the victim, in those days probably more often of the hard times than of his own improvidence. Latin Christianity may point to still surviving Foundations for the good—the temporal, the intellectual good—of mankind; her Hospitals and her Brotherhoods, her Universities and her Schools, her Churches and her Missions, in large part owing to the munificence or the active agency of her universal Hierarchy; and may thus calmly and securely appeal to the sentence of the most enlightened Christianity which will ever, as it may be hoped, prevail in the world.

And if the Hierarchy drew too imperiously, too sternly, too deeply the line of demarcation between the hallowed and unhallowed castes of mankind, it had the inestimable merit of asserting the absolute spiritual equality of all not in sacred orders. On the floor of the Church, before the Priest, before God (however there might be some and not always unwise distinction in place and in the homage to rank), the King and the Serf, in all essential points, stood on the same level. The same Sacraments were the common right of all. They were baptised in the same font, heard the same masses, might listen to the same sermons, were married by the same rites, knelt at the same altar, before the throne of the same Saint, received the body and blood of the same Redeemer, were even buried (though with very different pomp of funeral) in ground equally consecrated. The only distinction was excommunication or non-excommunication. The only outlaw was, it was believed, self-outlawed by wandering beyond the pale of the Church. The faithful were one people. Who shall estimate the value, the influence, the blessing of this perpetual assertion, this visible manifestation, of the only true Christian doctrine of equality—equality before God?

One subject we would willingly decline, but the historian must not shrink from truth, however repulsive. Celibacy, which was the vital energy of the Clergy, was at the same time their fatal, irremediable weakness. One-half, at least a large portion, of human kind could not cease to be human kind. The universal voice, which arraigns the state of morals, as regards sexual intercourse, among the Clergy, is not that of their enemies only, it is their own. Century after century we have heard throughout our history the eternal protest of the

severer Churchmen, of Popes, of Legates, of Councils. The marriage, or, as it was termed, the concubinage, of the Clergy was the least evil. The example set in high places (to deny the dissoluteness of the Papal Court at Avignon, would be to discard all historical evidence) could not be without frightful influence. The Avignone Legates bore with them the morals of Avignon. The last strong effort to break the bonds of celibacy at the council of Basle warned but warned in vain. It is the solemn attestation to the state of Germany and the northern kingdoms.* Even in his own age, no doubt, Henry Bishop of Liège was a monster of depravity. The frightful revelation of his life is from an admonitory letter of the wise and good Pope Gregory X. His lust was promiscuous. He kept as his concubine a Benedictine Abbess. He had boasted in a public banquet that in twenty-two months he had had fourteen children born. This was not the worst—there was foul incest, and with nuns. But the most extraordinary part of the whole is that in the letter the Pope seems to contemplate only the repentance of the Prelate, which he urges with the most fervent solemnity. Henry's own prayers, and the intercessory prayers of the virtuous—some such, no doubt, there must be in Liège—are to work the change; and then he is to administer his Pontifical office, so as to be a model of holiness, as he had been of vice, to his subjects. As to suspension, degradation, deposition, there is not a word. The Pope's lenity may have been meant to lure him to the Council of Lyons,

* Look back to vol. viii. p. 457. Before the Council of Tient, the Elector of Bavaria declared in a public document, that of 50 Clergy very few were not concubinarii.—Sarpì, viii. 7, p. 414.

See for Italy references to Justiniani, Patriarch of Venice, S. Antoninus, Archbishop of Florence; Weissenberg, Kirchen Versammlungen, ii. p. 229; again for Germany, ii. p. 228.

where he was persuaded to abdicate his See.' Hardly less repulsive, in some respects more so, as it embraces the Clergy and some of the convents of a whole province, is the disclosure, as undeniable and authentic, of sacerdotal morals, in the Register of the Visitations of Eudes Rigaud, Archbishop of Rouen, from 1248 to 1269.* We must suppose that only the Clergy of notorious and detected incontinence were presented at the Visitation. The number is sufficiently appalling: probably it comprehends, without much distinction, the married and concubinarian, as well as looser Clergy. There is one convent of females, which might almost have put Boccaccio to the blush. I am bound to confess that the Records of the Visitations from St. Paul's, some of which have been published not without reserve, too fully vindicate the truth of Langland, Chaucer, and the Satirists against the English Clergy and Friars in the fourteenth century.† And these Visitations, which take note only of those publicly accused, hardly reached, if they did reach, the lowest and the loosest. Only some of the Monks, none of the Wandering Friars, were amenable to Episcopal or Archidiaconal jurisdiction.

* "Circa divinum quoque et pontificale officium sic te sedulum et devotum exhibere" "Subditi." Henry of Liège was of princely race, of the house of Gueldres, Cousin-German to the Priest-Emperor, William of Holland; he became Bishop when a mere boy. Concilia sub ann. 1274. Hocsemius, Vit. Episcop. Leodens., p. 299.

† *Registrum Archiep. Rotomagensium*, published by M. Bonnin, Rouen, 1846. It is full of other curious and less unedifying matter.

* Precedents in Criminal Causes

edited by Archdeacon Hale, London, 1847. There is enough in these, the Visitations themselves make matters worse. It is curious that much earlier under the reign of K. Stephen, the Dean Ralph de Diceto speaks of the "focariæ" of the canons. Mr. Froude has published from the Records (in *Fraser's Magazine*, Feb. 1857) the visitation of a later time, of Archbishop Morton. The great Abbey of St. Alban's was in a state which hardly bears description.

Whether we call it by the holier name of marriage, or the more odious one of concubinage, this, the weakness or the sin of the Clergy, could not be committed by the Monks and Friars. They, mostly with less education and less discipline, spread abroad through the world, had far greater temptations, more fatal opportunities. Though they had, no doubt, their Saints, not only Saints, but numberless nameless recluses of admirable piety, unimpeachable holiness, fervent love of God and of man, yet of the profound corruption of this class there can be no doubt. But Latin, Roman Christianity, would not, could not, surrender this palladium of her power.^b

Time and the vicissitudes in political affairs had made a great difference in the power of the Clergy in the principal kingdoms of Europe. In Italy, in his double character of Italian potentate and as the Pontiff of Christendom, the Pope, after the discomfiture of the Council of Basle, had resumed in great measure his ascendancy. He now aspired to reign supreme over Letters and Arts. But from this time, or from the close of this century, the Italian Potentate, as has been said, began to predominate over the Pope. The successor of St. Peter was either chosen from one of the great Italian families, or aspired to found a great family. Nepotism became at once the strength and the infirmity, the glory and the shame, of the Papacy: the strength,

^b The Roman view is thus given in an argument before the Pope by the Cardinal de Carpi:—"Dal matrimonio de' Preti ne seguirà che avendo casa, moglie, e figli, non dipenderanno dal Papa, ma dal suo Principe, e la carità della prole gli farà condescendere ad ogni pregiudizio della Chiesa; cercheranno anco di far i benefici ereditari,

ed in brevissimo spazio la Sede Apostolica si restringerà a Roma. Innanzi che fosse instituito il celibato non cavava frutto alcuno la Sede Romana dell'altre città e regioni; per quello e fatta padrona di tanti benefizi, de' quali il matrimonio la priverrebbe in breve tempo."—Sarpi, L. v. Opere, v. II. p. 77.

as converting the Popes into the highest rank of Italian princes; the weakness, as inducing them to sacrifice the interests of the Holy See to the promotion of their own kindred: the glory, as seeing their descendants holding the highest offices, occupying splendid palaces, possessors of vast estates, sovereigns of principalities; the shame, as showing too often a feeble fondness for unworthy relatives, and entailing on themselves some complicity in the guilt, the profligacy or wickedness of their favoured kindred.

While the Pope thus rose, the higher Prelates of Italy seemed to sink, with no loss, perhaps, of real dignity, into their proper sphere. The Italy Archbishops of Milan, Florence, Genoa, Ravenna, are obscured before the Viscontis and Sforzas, the Medicis and Dorias, the hereditary Sovereigns, the princely Condottieri, the republican Podestàs, or the Dukes. Venice adhered to her ancient jealous policy; she would have no ambitious, certainly no foreign, Prelate within her lagunes. She was for some time content to belong to the province of an Archbishop hardly within her territory; and that Archbishop, if not a stranger within her walls, had no share in Venetian power or wealth. The single Bishop in Venice was Bishop of one of the small islands, Castello. Venice was first erected, and submitted to be erected, into a patriarchate by Nicolas V.^c When she admitted a Bishop or a Patriarch (perhaps because no one of inferior dignity must appear in St. Mark's), that Bishop received his investiture of his temporal possessions, his ring and pastoral staff, from the Doge. No Synods could be held without permission of the Council. It was not till after her humiliation by

^c Ughelli, Italia Sacra.

the League of Cambray that Venice would admit the collation of Bishops to sees within her territories; even then they must be native Venetians. The Superiors of the Monasteries and Orders were Venetians. Even Papal vacancies were presented to by the Venetian Cardinals. The Republic maintained and exercised the right of censure on Venetian Bishops and on Cardinals. If they were absent or contumacious their offences were visited on their families; they were exiled, degraded, banished. The parish priests were nominated by the proprietors in the parish. There was a distinct, severe, inflexible prohibition to the Clergy of all Orders to intermeddle in political affairs. Thus did Venice insulate herself in her haughty independence of Papal as of all other powers.^d Paolo Sarpi could write, without fear of the fulminations of Rome: he had only to guard against the dagger of the papalising fanatic. There was a complete, universal toleration for foreign rites; Greek, Armenian, and Mohammedan were under protection. Prosecutions for heresy were discouraged.

Ravenna had long ceased to be the rival of Rome; the Malatestas, not the Archbishop, were her Lords. The younger branches of the great princely families, those who were disposed to ease, lettered affluence, and more peaceful pomp, by no means disdained the lofty titles, the dignity, the splendid and wealthy palaces of the Prelature: some aspired to the Popedom. Those too, and they were by no means wanting, who were possessed with a profound sense of religion, rose, from better motives and with the noblest results, to the honours of the Church. The Roman Colonnas, the Venetian

^d Dau, *Hist. de Venise*, L. xxviii. c. xi. The saying—"Siame Venetiani, poi Christiani"—was their boast or their reproach.

Contarinis, the Lombard Borromeos, some of the holiest men, were of famous or Papal houses. The Medicis gave two Popes, Léo X. and Clement VII., princes rather than Saints, to the throne of St. Peter. Few Prelates, however, if any, excepting Popes, founded princely families. The Republics, the Tyrants who overthrew or undermined the Republics, the great Transalpine powers which warred for the mastery of Italy, warred by temporal arms alone. No Prelates took the field or plunged into politics, except the Pope and his Cardinals; even from them excommunications had lost their power. They warred with the ordinary instruments of war, soldiers, lances, and artillery. Every other Prelate was content if he could enjoy his revenues and administer his diocese in peace. In general, even the least religious had learned the wisdom or necessity of decency; the more accomplished indulged in the patronage of letters and arts, often letters and arts Pagan rather than Christian; the truly religious rarely wrought their religion to fanaticism; they shone with the light of the milder virtues, and spent their superfluous wealth on churches and on ecclesiastical objects. Christian Art had its papal, its prelatial, its monastic impulses.

In France the Pragmatic Sanction, not repealed till the reign of Francis I., left the disposal of the great preferments in the power of the Crown. France. But, as has been said, the Pragmatic Sanction was no bold assertion of religious freedom, no generous effort for the emancipation of the universal Church. The Gallican liberties were throughout a narrow, national claim to a special and peculiar exemption from that which was acknowledged to be elsewhere an unlimited autocracy. The claim rested on its own grounds, was

more endeared to France because it was distinctive; it was a perpetual appeal to the national vanity, the vindication of a privilege of which men are more fond than of a common right. As an exceptional case, though in direct contradiction with its first principle, it affirmed in all other countries the plenary indispensable power of the Pope.*

The civil wars of the Armagnacs and the Burgundians, the wars with England, threw the hierarchy of France, as it were, into the shade; more violent impulses agitated the realm than struggles for power between the Church and State.† The Churchmen were divided in these fatal quarrels: like the nobles of France, there were Orleanist and Burgundian Bishops. The King of England named Bishops, he had Bishops for his unscrupulous partisans, in the conquered provinces of France. It was the Bishop of Beauvais—with the Inquisitors of France—who condemned Joan of Arc as a witch, and burned her at the stake. In this wicked, contemptible, and hateful process the Church must share the guilt with England. High feudal names during all this period are found in the hierarchy of France, but the rich prelacies and abbacies had not yet become to such an extent as hereafter the appanages of the younger branches of the noble families. So long as the King possessed the inappreciable prerogative of rewarding the faithful, or purchasing the wavering loyalty

* Gioberti has somewhere declared the Gallican Liberties a standing Antipope.*

† The Parliament of Poitiers compelled Charles VII. to renounce an ordinance, Feb. 14, 1424, which they refused to register, restoring to the Pope the nomination to the Benefices.

This weak concession had been obtained from the King by the Queen of Sicily. The Parliament declared the ordinance surreptitious, and contrary to the rights of the Bishops.—*Ordonnances des Rois*, Preface, t. xiii. Sismondi, *Hist. des Français*, xiii. 54.

of those dangerous, once almost coequal, subjects by the bestowal of benefices, this power had no inconsiderable influence on the growth of the royal authority. At all events, the Church offered no resistance to the consolidation of the kingly power; the ecclesiastical nobles were mostly the obsequious partisans of the Crown.

In Spain the Church had not begun to rule her Kings with absolute sway, or rather her Kings had not yet become in mind and heart Churchmen.

Spain.

The Crusade still continued against the Mohammedan, who was slowly and stubbornly receding before the separate kingdoms, Castile, Arragon, Portugal. Spain had not yet begun—might seem unlikely to begin—her crusade against the rising religious liberties of Europe. She aspired not to be the Champion, and, as the Champion, the Sovereign of Latin Christendom; she had given to the Church St. Dominic, she had yet to give Ximenes, Philip II., Torquemada, Loyola.

In Germany the strife of the Papacy and the Empire seemed altogether worn out; the Emperor was content to be a German Sovereign, the

Germany.

Pope to leave the German sovereignty to the German Electors. The Concordat and the Articles of Aschaffenburg had established a truce which might settle down into peace. If the Pope had been satisfied to receive, Germany would hardly have been unwilling to pay, the stipulated, before long the customary, tribute. The Bishop-Electors no longer took the lead, or dictated to the Prince-Electors. In general they were quietly magnificent, rather than turbulent or aggressive Prelates. Still the possession of three out of the seven suffrages for the Empire maintained at once the dignity of the Church, and made these prizes objects of ambition to

the princely houses of Germany.^a Nor did these archbishoprics stand alone. Metropolitans like those of Saltzburg, Prague, Olmutz, Magdeburg; Bishops in the flourishing cities of the Rhine, Worms, Spiers, Strassburg, or in its neighbourhood, Wurtzburg, Bamberg, Passau, Ratisbon, were, in their domains, privileges, feudal rights, and seignorialties, principalities. Yet all was apparent submission, harmony, mutual respect; perhaps the terrors of the Turkish invasion, equally formidable to Pope and Emperor, aided in keeping the peace. The balance of power was rather that of the Prince-Electors and Princes of the Empire against the Emperor and the Pope, than of Emperor against Pope.^b The estrangement from the Papal dominion, the once clamorous demand for the reformation of the Church, the yearning after Teutonic independence, had sunk into the depths of the national mind, into which it could not be followed by the most sagacious political or religious seer. The deep, silent, popular religious movement, from Master Eckhart, from the author of the Book on the Imitation of Christ, and from Tauler, above all, from the author of the German Theology and his disciples, might seem as if it was amassing strength upon the foundation of Latin Christianity and the hierarchical system; while these writers were the monitory signs, and as far as showing the uncongeniality of the Latin and Teutonic mind, the harbingers of the coming revolution.

^a In the fifteenth century, indeed, the Bishoprics began to be commonly bestowed on the younger sons of Sovereign Princes; the Court of Rome favoured this practice, from the conviction, that the Chapters could only

be kept in order by the strong hand and the authority of Sovereign power, &c.—*Ranke's Germany*, Mrs. Austin's Translation, i. p. 68.

^b Compare the Introduction to *Ranke*.

England had long ceased to be the richest and most obedient tributary province of the Holy See. The Statutes of Mortmain, Provisors, Præmunire, had become the law of the land. Peers and Commons had united in the same jealousy of the exorbitant power and influence of the Pope. The remonstrances of the Popes against these laws had broken and scattered like foam upon the rocks of English pride and English justice.¹ The Clergy, as one of the estates of the realm, hold their separate Parliament, grant their subsidies or benevolences; but they now take a humbler tone, meekly deprecate rather than fulminate anathemas against those who invade their privileges and immunities. Trembling for their own power, they care not to vindicate with offensive haughtiness that of the Pope. The hierarchy, awed by the spreading opinion of the Lollards, had thrown themselves for protection under the usurping house of Lancaster, and had been accepted as faithful allies of the Crown under Henry IV. Though the Archbishop of York is at the head of the great Northern insurrection, on Henry's side are the successive Primate of Canterbury, Arundel, and Courtenay. It might seem that the Pope and the Crown, by advancing Englishmen of the noble houses to the Primacy, had deliberately determined on a league with the Lords against the civil and spiritual democracy—on one side of Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, on the other of the extreme followers of Wycliffe. The first act of this tacit league was

¹ Under Henry IV., the Parliament resolves that "the Pope's collector, though he had the Pope's Bull for this purpose, hath no jurisdiction within this realm."—1 Henry IV. The Præmunire is confirmed against unlawful communication with Rome, at the same time that the Act against heresy is passed; and this Act is not a Canon of the Church, but a Statute of the Realm,—*Parliamentary History*.

to establish the throne of Henry Bolingbroke and put in execution the burning statute against heretics. It can not be doubted that Archbishop Chichely, in his support of the French war, sought less to propitiate the royal favour than to discharge on France some of the perilous turbulence which was fermenting in England. At the commencement of Henry VI. the Cardinal Beaufort of Winchester is striving for supreme power with the Duke of Gloucester; but Beaufort is a Prince of the blood, uncle of the King, as well as Bishop and Cardinal.^k In the French wars, and in the civil wars, the Bishops seem to have shrunk into their proper and more peaceful sphere. Chichely was content with blowing the trumpet in the Parliament in London; he did not follow the King with the armed retainers of Canterbury. The high places of the Church—though so many of the younger as well as the elder sons of the nobility found more congenial occupation in the fields of France—were rarely left to men of humbler birth. Stafford, who succeeded Chichely, was of the house of the Counts of Stafford, Bouchier of the Earls of Essex.^m Neville, brother of the Earl of Warwick, was Archbishop of York.ⁿ In the wars of the Roses, the Nobles, the Somersets, Buckingham,

^k Among the Ambassadors of England to Basle were the Bishops of London, Lisieux, Rochester, Bayeux, and Aix, and other English and Norman divines.—See Commission, Fuller's Church History, p. 178.

^m Chichely was said to be the son of a tailor.—Fuller, p. 182. His biographer rather confirms this, speaking respectfully of it as a reputable trade, p. 3.

ⁿ The Pope still maintained the

form of the appointment to the Primacy. As in a case cited above of York, the Monks of Canterbury elected Chichely (no doubt under royal influence). The Pope refused the nomination, but himself appointed Chichely by a Papal provision. Chichely would not accept the Primacy till authorised by the King. Stafford's successor, Kemp, was in like manner elected by the Monks, refused, and then nominated of his own authority by the Pope.—

Warwicks, Cliffords—not the Canterburies, Yorks, or Londons—are at the head of the conflicting parties. The banners of Bishops and Abbots wave not over the fields of Barnet, Towton, Wakefield, St. Alban's, Tewkesbury. It is not till the war is over that they resume their seat or authority in the Parliament or Council board. They acknowledge and do homage to the conqueror, York or Lancastrian, or, like Henry VII.,^o blending the two titles. From that time the Archbishop is the first subject in the realm, but in every respect a subject. Some of the great English Prelates, from Wykeham to Wolsey, seem to have been more prescient than those in other kingdoms of the coming change. It is shown in their consecration of large masses of ecclesiastical wealth and landed property for the foundation of colleges rather than monasteries, by Wykeham, Wainfleet, Fox, Wolsey. It can hardly be doubted that some wise Churchman suggested the noble design of Henry VI. in the endowment of King's at Cambridge and of Eton. Wolsey's more magnificent projects seem, as it were, to be arming the Church for some imminent contest; they reveal a sagacious foreknowledge that the Church must take new ground if she will maintain her rule over the mind of man.

Still on the whole throughout Christendom the vast

Godwin, in Chicheley and Kemp. The Pope confirmed the election of Bouchier.—Godwin, in Bouchier. The Pope was thus content with a specious maintenance of his right, the more practical English with the possession of the real power.

• “This king's reign afforded little Church storie,” says Fuller. He fills

it up with an account of an enormous banquet given by Neville, Archbishop of York. Neville could not help being a politician. When Edward, afterwards the IVth, was a prisoner, he was in the custody of Neville, who does not seem to have watched him too carefully. Neville was seized and sent prisoner to Calais by Edward IV.

fabric of the hierarchy stood unshaken. In England alone there was suppressed insurrection among the followers of Wycliffe, now obscure and depressed by persecution; and in Bohemia. There the irresistible armies of Ziska and Procopius had not only threatened to found an anti-hierarchical State; but for the mutual antipathy between the Slavonian and Teutonic races, they might have drawn Germany into the revolt. But Bohemia, again bowed under hierarchical supremacy, was brooding in sullen sorrow over her lost independence. In no other land, except in individual minds or small despised sects, was there any thought, any yearning for the abrogation of the sacerdotal authority. The belief was universal, it was a part of the common Christianity, that a mysterious power dwelt in the hierarchy, irrespective of the sanctity of their own lives, and not dependant on their greater knowledge, through study, of Divine revelation, which made their mediation absolutely necessary to escape eternal perdition and to attain eternal life. The keys were in their hands, not to unlock the hidden treasures of Divine wisdom in the Gospels, or solely to bind and loose by the administration of the great Sacraments; but the keys absolutely of Heaven or Hell. Not, indeed, that death withdrew the soul from the power of the Priest; not even after it departed from the body was it left to the unerring judgement, to the inexhaustible mercy of the one All-seeing Judge. In Purgatory the Priest still held in his hands the doom of the dead man. This doom, in the depths of the other world, was hardly a secret. The torments of Purgatory (and the precincts of purgatory were widened infinitely—very few were so holy as to escape, few so desperately lost as not to be admitted to purgatorial probation) might be mitigated

by the expiatory masses, masses purchased by the wealthy at the price dictated by the Priest, and which rarely could be gained without some sacrifice by the brokenhearted relative or friend. They were more often lavishly provided for by the dying sinner in his will, when wealth, clung to with such desperate tenacity in life, is thrown away with as desperate recklessness. This religion, in which man ceased to be the guardian of his own soul—with all its unspeakable terrors, with all its unspeakable consolations (for what weak mind—and whose mind on such points was not weak?—would not hold as inestimable the certain distinct priestly absolution, or the prayers of the Church for the dead),—this vicarious religion was as much part of the ordinary faith, as much an article of Latin Christianity, as the retributive judgement of God, as the redemption through Christ.

It is difficult (however vain it may be) not to speculate how far the conservative reformation in the Pope and in the Hierarchy, urged so earnestly and eloquently by Gerson and D'Ailly, more vehemently and therefore more alarmingly, by the Council of Basle, might have averted or delayed the more revolutionary reform of the next century. Had not the Papacy, had not the Hierarchy, with almost judicial blindness, thrown itself across the awakening moral sense of man; had it not, by the invidious possession, the more invidious accumulation, of power and wealth, with all the inevitable abuses in the acquisition, in the employment, of that power and wealth, aggravated rather than mitigated their despotic yoke; had they not by such reckless defiance as the lavish preaching of Indulgences by profligate and insolent men, insulted the rising impatience, and shown too glaringly the wide disruption and dis-

tance between the moral and the ritual elements of religion ; had not this flagrant incongruity of asserting the Divine power of Christ to be vested in men, to so great an extent utterly unchristian, compelled reflection, doubt, disbelief—at length indignant reprobation—would the crisis have come when it came? Who would have had the courage to assume the responsibility for his own soul? Who would have renounced the privilege of absolution? Who would have thrown himself on the vaguer, less material, less palpable, less, may it be said, audible mercy of God in Christ, and in Christ alone? Who would have withdrawn from what at least seemed to be, what was asserted and believed to be, the visible Church, in which the signs and tokens of Divine grace and favour were all definite, distinct, cognisable by the senses ; were seen, heard, felt, and not alone by the inward consciousness? Who would have contented himself with being of that Invisible Church, of which the only sign was the answer of the good conscience within, faith and hope unguaranteed by any earthly mediator, unassured by any authoritative form of words or outward ceremony? Who would have rested in trembling hope on the witness of the Spirit of God, concurrent with the testimony of the spirit within? We may imagine a more noiseless, peaceful, alas, we must add, bloodless change! We may imagine the Gospel, now newly revealed, as it were, in its original language (the older Testament in its native Hebrew), and illustrated by the earlier Greek Fathers, translated into all living languages, and by the new art of Printing become of general and familiar use, gradually dispersing all the clouds of wild allegoric interpretation, of mythology, and materialism, which had been gathering over it for centuries, and thus returning to its few majestic primal

truths in the Apostolic Creed. We may even imagine the Hierarchy receding into their older sphere, instructors, examples in their families as in themselves, of all the virtues and charities; the religious administrators of simpler rites. Yet who that calmly, philosophically, it may almost be said religiously, surveys the power and strength of the Latin religion, the religion of centuries, the religion of a continent—its extraordinary and felicitous adaptation to all the wants and necessities of man—its sympathy with some of the dominant faculties of our being, those especially developed at certain periods of civilisation—its unity—its magisterial authority—the depth to which it had sunk in the human heart—the feelings, affections, passions, fears, hopes, which it commanded: who that surveys it in its vast standing army of the Clergy, and Monks and Friars, which had so long taken service in its defence, with its immense material strength of Churches, Monasteries, Established Laws, Rank; in its Letters, and in its Arts; in its charitable, educational, Institutions: who will not rather wonder at its dissolution, its abolition in so large a part of Christendom, than at its duration? It is not so marvellous that it resisted, and resisted with success; that it threw back in some kingdoms, for a time, the inevitable change; that it postponed in some until a more remote, more terrible and fatal rebellion some centuries after, the destruction from its autocratic, despotic throne. Who shall be astonished that Latin Christianity so long maintained a large part of the world at least in nominal subjection; or finally, that it still maintains the contest with its rival Teutonic Christianity without, and the more dangerous, because unavowed, revolt within its own pale—the revolt of those who, in appearance

its subjects, either altogether disdain its control, and, not able to accept its belief and discipline, compromise by a hollow acquiescence, or an unregarded, unpunished neglect of all discipline, for total inward *rejection of belief?*

CHAPTER II.

Belief of Latin Christianity.

LATIN Christendom, or rather universal Christendom, was one (excepting those who were self-outlawed, or outlawed by the dominant authority Unity of creed. from the Christian monarchy), not only in the organisation of the all-ruling Hierarchy and the admission of Monkhood, it was one in the great system of Belief. With the exception of the single article of the procession of the Holy Ghost, the Nicene formulary had been undisturbed, and had ruled with undisputed sway Procession of the Holy Ghost for centuries. The procession of the Holy Ghost from the Son as well as the Father was undoubtedly the doctrine of the early Latin writers; but this tenet stole noiselessly—it is not quite certain at what time—into the Creed. That Creed, framed at the great Council of Nicæa, had been received with equal unanimity by the Greek and Latin Churches. Both Churches had subscribed to the anathemas pronounced by the second Council of Constantinople, and ratified by the first Council of Ephesus, against any Church which should presume to add one word or letter to that Creed. Public documents in Rome showed that Pope Leo III. had inscribed on a silver tablet the Creed of Rome without the words “from the Son,” as the authorised faith of the Latin Church. In the great quarrel with Photius, the Greeks discovered, and charged against the Latins, this audacious violation of the

decrees of the Councils, this unauthorised impious addition to the unalterable Creed of Nicæa. The Patriarch of Constantinople charged it, justly or unjustly, against his own enemy, Nicolas I.* In the strife with Michael Cerularius, at the final disruption between the two

Churches, this was one of the inextinguishable
A.D. 1053.

offences of the Latin Church. The admission of the obnoxious article by the Greeks at the Council of Florence was indignantly repudiated, on the return of the Legates from the Council, by the Greek Church. But the whole of Latin Christendom disdained to give ear to the protest of the Greeks; the article remained, with no remonstrance whatever from the West, in the general Latin Creed.

But the Creeds—that of the Apostles, that of Nicæa, or even that ascribed to St. Athanasius, and
Unity of
popular
religion. chanted in every church of the West—formed but a small part of the belief of Latin Christendom. That whole world was one in the popular religion. The same vast mythology commanded the general consent; the same angelology, demonology; the same worship of the Virgin and the Saints, the same reverence for pilgrimages and reliques, the same notions of the life to come, of Hell, Purgatory, Heaven. In general, as springing out of like tendencies and prepossessions of mind, prevailed the like or kindred traditions; the world was one in the same vulgar superstitions. Already, as has been seen, at the close of the sixth century, during the Pontificate of Gregory the Great, the Christianisation not only of the speculative belief of man, of

* I know no more brief or better summary of the controversy than the common one in Pearson on the Creed. I have some doubts whether the accusation of Photius, as to its introduction, is personal against Pope Nicolas or against the Roman Church.

that also which may justly be called the religion of man, was complete: but no less complete was the Christianisation, if it may be so said, of the lingering Paganism. Man had divinised all those objects of awe and veneration, which rose up in new forms out of his old religion, and which were intermediate between the Soul and God,—"God," that is, in "Christ," as revealed in the Gospels. Tradition claimed equal authority with the New Testament. There was supposed to be a perpetual power in the Church, and in the Hierarchy the Ruler and Teacher of the Church, of infinitely expanding and multiplying the objects of faith; at length, of gradually authorising and superinducing as integral parts of Christianity the whole imaginative belief of the Middle Ages. Even where such belief had not been canonically enacted by Pope or Council, the tacit acceptance by the general practice of Priest as well as of people was not less authoritative; popular adoration invested its own objects in uncontested sanctity. Already the angelic Hierarchy, if not in its full organisation, had taken its place between mankind and God; already the Virgin Mary was rising, or had fully risen, into Deity; already prayers rarely ascended directly to the throne of grace through the One Intercessor, a crowd of mediate agencies was almost necessary to speed the orison upward, and to commend its acceptance, as it might thwart its blessing. Places, things, had assumed an inalienable holiness, with a concentered and emanative power of imparting or withholding spiritual influences. Great prolific principles had been laid down, and had only to work in the congenial soil of the human mind. Now, by the infusion of the Barbaric or Teutonic element, as well as by the religious movement which had stirred to its depths the old Roman society, mankind might seem

renewing its youth, its spring-time of life, with all its imaginative creativeness, and its unceasing surrender to whatever appeared to satisfy the yearnings of its hardly *satisfied faith*.

There was unity in the infinite diversity of the popular worship. Though each nation, province, parish, shrine, had its peculiar and tutelar Saint, none was without a Saint, and none denied the influence of the Saints of others. Christianity was one in this materialistic inter-communion between the world of man and the extra-mundane; that ulterior sphere, in its purer corporeity, yet still, in its corporeity, was perpetually becoming cognisable to the senses of man. It was one in the impersonation of all the agencies of nature, in that universal Anthropomorphism, which, if it left something of vague and indefinite majesty to the Primal Parental Godhead, this was not from any high intellectual or mental conception of the incongruity of the human and divine; not from dread of the disparagement of the Absolute and the Infinite; from no predilection for the true sublimity of higher Spiritualism; but simply because its worship, content to rest on a lower sphere, humanised all which it actually adored, without scruple, without limit; and this not in language only, but in its highest conception of its real existence.

All below the Godhead was materialised to the thought. Even within the great Triune Deity the Son still wore the actual flesh which he had assumed on earth; the Holy Ghost became a Dove, not as a symbol, but as a constantly indwelt form. All beyond this supercelestial sphere, into which, however controversial zeal might trespass, awful reverence yet left in it some majestic indistinctness, and some confessed mysterious transcendentalism; all lower, nearer to the world of

man, angels, and devils, the spirits of the condemned and the beatified Saints, were in form, in substance however subtilised, in active only enlarged powers, in affections, hatred or attachment, in passions, nothing more than other races of human beings.

There was the world of Angels and of Devils. The earlier faith, that of Gregory the Great, had contented itself with the notions of Angels as ^{Angels.} dimly revealed in the Scriptures. It may be doubted if any names of angels, except those in the Sacred Writings, Michael, Gabriel, Raphael, or any acts not imagined according to the type and precedent of the angelic visitations in the Old and New Testament, will be found in the earlier Fathers. But by degrees the Hierarchy of Heaven was disclosed to the ready faith of mankind, at once the glorious type and with all the regular gradations and ranks of the Hierarchy upon Earth. There was a great celestial Church above, not of the beatified Saints, but of those higher than human Beings whom St. Paul had given some ground to distinguish by different titles, titles which seemed to imply different ranks and powers.

Latin Christendom did not give birth to the writer who, in this and in another department, influenced most powerfully the Latin mind. The author of those extraordinary treatises which, from their obscure and doubtful parentage, now perhaps hardly maintain their fame for imaginative richness, for the occasional beauty of their language, and their deep piety—those treatises which, widely popular in the West, almost created the angel-worship of the popular creed, and were also the parents of Mystic Theology and of the higher Scholasticism—this Poet-Theologian was a Greek. The writings which bear the venerable name of Dionysius

the Areopagite, the proselyte of St. Paul, first appear under a suspicious and suspected form, as authorities cited by the heterodox Severians in a conference at Constantinople.^b The orthodox stood aghast: how was it that writings of the holy Convert of St. Paul had never been heard of before? that Cyril of Alexandria, that Athanasius himself, were ignorant of their existence? But these writings were in themselves of too great power, too captivating, too congenial to the monastic mind, not to find bold defenders.^c Bearing this venerable name in their front, and leaving behind them, in the East, if at first a doubtful, a growing faith in their authenticity,^d they appeared in the West as a precious gift from the Byzantine Emperor to the Emperor Louis the Pious. France in that age was not likely to throw cold and jealous doubts on writings which bore the hallowed name of that great Saint, whom she had already boasted to have left his primal bishopric of Athens to convert her forefathers, whom Paris already held to be her tutelar Patron, the rich and powerful Abbey of St. Denys to be her founder. There was living in the West, by happy coincidence, the one man who at that period, by his knowledge of Greek, by the congenial speculativeness of his mind, by the vigour and richness of his imagination, was qualified to trans

^b Concilia sub ann. 533. Compare the Preface to the edition of Conderius.

^c Photius, in the first article in his *Bibliotheca*, describes the work of a monk, Theodorus, who had answered four out of the unanswerable arguments against their authenticity, as the writings of the Areopagite; but about the answers of Theodorus, and his own impression of the authority

and value of the books, Photius is silent.—Photii Biblioth. p. 1, ed. Bekker.

^d There is a quotation from them in a Homily of Gregory the Great, Lib. II. Hom. 34, Oper. I. p. 1607. Gregory probably picked it up during his controversy in Constantinople.—(See vol. I. p. 435.) There is no other trace of an earlier version, or of their earlier influence in the West.

late into Latin the mysterious doctrines of the Areopagite, both as to the angelic world and the subtle theology. John Erigena hastened to make known in the West the "Celestial Hierarchy," the treatise "on the Name of God," and the brief chapters on the "Mystic Philosophy." These later works were more tardy in their acceptance, but perhaps more enduring in their influence. Traced downwards through Erigena himself, the St. Victors, Bonaventura, to Eckhart and Tauler in Germany, and throughout the unfailing succession of Mystics, they will encounter us hereafter.*

The "Celestial Hierarchy" would command at once, and did command, universal respect for its authority, and universal reverence for its doc- The Celestial Hierarchy trines. The "Hierarchy" threw upward the Primal Deity, the whole Trinity, into the most awful, unapproachable, incomprehensible distance; but it filled the widening intermediate space with a regular succession of superhuman Agents, an ascending and descending scale of Beings, each with his rank, title, office, function, superior or subordinate. The vague incidental notices in the Old and New Testament and in St. Paul (and to St. Paul doubtless Jewish tradition lent the names), were wrought out into regular Orders, who have each, as it were, a feudal relation, pay their feudal service (here it struck in with the Western as well as with the Hierarchical mind) to the Supreme, and have feudal superiority or subjection to each other. This theory ere long became almost the authorised Theology; it

* The Preface of Corderius (Observat. xi.) briefly shows the connexion of the pseudo-Dionysius with Scholasticism, especially with Thomas Aquinas.

Observat. xii. shows the innumerable references of Aquinas to those works; yet Aquinas was far less mystic than other schoolmen.

became, as far as such transcendent subjects could be familiarised to the mind, the vulgar belief. The Arts hereafter, when mature enough to venture on such vast and unmanageable subjects, accepted this as the tradition of the Church. Painting presumed to represent the individual forms, and even, in Milton's phrase, "the numbers without number" of this host of heaven.

The Primal Godhead, the Trinity in Unity, was alone Absolute, Ineffable, Inconceivable; alone Essential Purity, Light, Knowledge, Truth, Beauty, Goodness.^f These qualities were communicated in larger measure in proportion to their closer approximation to itself, to the three descending Triads which formed the Celestial Hierarchy:—I. The Seraphim, Cherubim, and Thrones. II. The Dominations, Virtues, Powers. III. Principalities, Archangels, Angels. This Celestial Hierarchy formed, as it were, concentric circles around the unapproachable Trinity. The nearest, and as nearest partaking most fully of the Divine Essence, was the place of honour. The Thrones, Seraphim, and Cherubim approximated most closely, with nothing intermediate, and were more immediately and eternally conformed to the Godhead. The two latter of these were endowed, in the language of the Scripture, with countless eyes and countless wings.^g The second Triad, of less marked and definite attributes, was that of the

^f The writer strives to get beyond Greek copiousness of expression, in order to shroud the Godhead in its utter unapproachableness. He is the Goodness beyond Goodness, *ὑπεράγαθος ἀγαθότης*, the Super-Essential Essence, *οὐσία ὑπερούσια*, Godhead of Godhead, *ὑπερθέος Θεότης*.

^g *Πρωτὴν μὲν εἶναι φησι, τὴν περὶ Θεὸν οὖσαν ἀεὶ καὶ πρὸ τῶν ἄλλων ἀμέσως ἡνῶσθαι παραδεδομένην, τοὺς τε γὰρ ἁγιωτάτους θρόνους καὶ τὰ πολυόμματα καὶ πολύπτερα τέγματα Χερουβὶμ, Ἑβραίων φωνῇ, καὶ Σεραφὶμ ὀνομάσματα* —C. vi.

Powers, Dominations, Virtues.^a The third, as more closely approximating to the world of man, if it may be so said, more often visited the atmosphere of earth, and were the immediate ministers of the Divine purposes. Yet the, so-called, Areopagite laboriously interprets into a spiritual meaning all the forms and attributes assigned in the sacred writings to the Celestial Messengers, to Angels and Archangels. They are of fiery nature. Fire possesses most properties of the Divinity, permeating everything, yet itself pure and unmingled: all manifesting, yet undiscernible till it has found matter to enkindle; irresistible, invisible, subduing everything to itself; vivifying, enlightening, renewing, and moving and keeping everything in motion; and so through a long list of qualities, classed and distinguished with exquisite Greek perspicuity. He proceeds to their human form, allegorising as he goes on, the members of the human body, their wings, their partial nakedness, their bright or their priestly raiment, their girdles, their wands, their spears, their axes, their measuring-cords, the winds, the clouds, the brass and tin, the choirs and hallelujahs, the hues of the different precious stones; the animal forms of the lion, the ox, the eagle, the horse; the colours of the symbolic horses; the streams, the chariots, the wheels, and finally, even the joy of the Angels.¹ All this, which to the wise and more reflective seemed to interpret and to bestow a lofty significance on these images, taken in its letter—and so far only it reached the vulgar ear—gave reality, gave a kind of authority and conventional certainty to the whole Angelic Host as represented and described for the popu-

^a All this was said to be derived from St. Paul. Gregory the Great (Lib. ii. Moralia) has another distribution, probably from some other source.

¹ Ch. xv.

lar worship. The existence of this regular Celestial Hierarchy became an admitted fact in the higher and more learned Theology; the Schoolmen reason upon it as on the Godhead itself: in its more distinct and material outline it became the vulgar belief. The separate and occasionally discernible Being and Nature of Seraphim and Cherubim, of Archangel and Angel, in that dim confusion of what was thought revealed in the Scripture, and what was sanctioned by the Church—of image and reality; this Oriental, half Magian, half Talmudic, but now Christianised theory, took its place, if with less positive authority, with hardly less questioned credibility, amid the rest of the faith.

But this, the proper, if it may be so said, most heavenly, was not the only Celestial Hierarchy. There was a Hierarchy below, reflecting that above; a mortal, a material Hierarchy: corporeal, as communicating divine light, purity, knowledge to corporeal Beings. The triple earthly Sacerdotal Order had its type in heaven, the Celestial Orders their antitype on earth. The triple and novene division ran throughout, and connected, assimilated, almost identified the mundane and supermundane Church. As there were three degrees of attainment, Light, Purity, Knowledge (or the divine vision), so there were three Orders of the Earthly Hierarchy, Bishops, Priests, and Deacons; three Sacraments, Baptism, the Eucharist, the Holy Chrism; three classes, the Baptised, the Communicants, the Monks. How sublime, how exalting, how welcome to the Sacerdotalism of the West this lofty doctrine! The Celestial Hierarchy. Celestial Hierarchy were as themselves; themselves were formed and organised after the pattern of the great Orders in heaven. The whole worship of Man, in which they administered, was an echo of that above;

it represented, as in a mirror, the angelic or super-angelic worship in the Empyrean. All its splendour, its lights, its incense, were but the material symbols; adumbrations of the immaterial, condescending to human thought, embodying in things cognisable to the senses of man the adoration of the Beings close to the throne of God.^k

The unanswerable proof, were other wanting, of the Greek origin of the Celestial Hierarchy is, that in the Hierarchical system there is no place for the Pope, nor even—this perhaps might seem more extraordinary to the Gallic Clergy—for the Metropolitan. It recognises only the triple rank of Bishops, Priests, and Deacons. Jesus to the earthly Hierarchy is as the higher Primal Godhead, as the Trinity, to the Celestial Hierarchy. He is the Thearchic Intelligence, the super-substantial Being.^m From him are communicated, through the Hierarchy, Purity, Light, Knowledge. He is the Primal Hierarchy, that imparts his gifts to men; from him and through him men become partakers in the Divinity. The Sacraments are the channels through which these graces, Purification, Illumination, Perfection, are distributed to the chosen. Each Hierarchical Order has its special function, its special gifts. Baptism is by the Deacon, the Eucharist by the Priest, the Holy Chrism by the Bishop. What the Celestial Hierarchy are to the whole material universe the Hierarchy of the Clergy are to the souls of men; the trans-

^k Ἐπεὶ μὴδὲ δυνατόν ἐστιν τῷ ἀφανοῦς εὐπρεπείας ἀπεικονίσματα καθ' ἡμᾶς νοῦ, πρὸς τὴν ἀύλον ἐκείνην ἀνατεθῆναι τῶν οὐρανίων Ἱεραρχῶν μίμησιν τε καὶ θεωρίαν, εἰ μὴ τῇ κατ' αὐτὸν ὕλας χειραγωγίᾳ χρῆσαι το τὰ μὲν φαινόμενα κάλλη τῆς
 λογιζόμενος, καὶ τὰς αἰσθητὰς εὐωδίας ἐκτυπώματα τῆς νοητῆς διαθεσεως, καὶ τῆς αὐλοῦ φωτοδοσίας εἰκὼνα τα ὅλικά φῶτα.—Lib. i. c. i. p. 3.
^m Θεαρχικώτατος νοῦς, ὑπερουσίος

mittants, the sole transmittants, of those graces and blessings which emanate from Christ as their primal fountain.

Still, however, 'as of old,'^a angelic apparitions were rare and unfrequent in comparison with the *Demonology*. demoniacal possessions, the demoniacal temptations and interferences. Fear was more quick, sensitive, ever-awake, than wonder, devotion, or love. Men might in their profound meditations imagine this orderly and disciplined Hierarchy far up in the remote Heavens. The visitations to earth might be of higher or lower ministers, according to the dignity of the occasion or the holiness of the Saint. The Seraphim might flash light on the eye, or touch with fire the lip of the Seer; the Cherubim might make their celestial harmonies heard; the Archangel might sweep down on his terrible wings on God's mission of wrath; the Angel descend on his more noiseless mission of love. The air might teem with these watchful Beings, brooding with their protecting care over the Saints, the Virgins, the meek and lowly Christians.^o They might be in perpetual contest for the souls of men with their eternal antagonists the Devils. But the Angelology was but dim and indistinct to the dreadful ever-present *Demonology*; their name, the Spirits of Air, might seem as if the atmosphere immediately around this world was their inalienable, almost exclusive domain.

So long as Paganism was the antagonist of Christianity, the Devil, or rather the Devils, took the names of Heathen Deities: to St. Martin of Tours, they were Jove, Mercury, Venus, or Minerva. They wore the form

^a Compare vol. ii. p. 152.

^o Spenser's beautiful and well-known lines express the common feeling.

and the attributes of those rejected and degraded Gods, no doubt familiar to most by their statues, perhaps by heathen poetry—the statues not yet destroyed by neglect or by Christian Iconoclasm, the poetry, which yet sounded to the Christian ear profane, idolatrous, hateful.^p At a later period the Heathen Deities have sunk into the obscure protectors of certain odious vices. Among the charges against Pope Boniface VIII. is the invocation of Venus and other Pagan demons, for success in gambling and other licentious occupations. So, too, in the conversion of the Germans, the Teutonic Gods became Demons. The usual form of recantation of heathenism was, “Dost thou renounce the Devils? Dost thou renounce Thonar, Woden, Saxnote?”^q “Odin take you,” is still the equivalent in some Northern tongues to “the Devil take you.”^r

But neither did the Greek Mythology, nor did that of the Germans, offer any conception like that of the later Jewish and the Christian Antagonist of God. Satan had no prototype in either. The German Teufel (Devil) is no more than the Greek Diabolus. The word is used by Ulphilas; and in that primitive translation Satan retains his proper name.^s But as in Greek and Roman

^p “Nam interdum in Jovis personam, pleumque Mercuri, persæpe etiam se Veneris ac Minervæ transfiguratum vultibus offerebat.”—Sulp. Sever. Vit. S. Mat. cxxiii. Martin was endowed with a singular faculty of discerning the Devil. “Diabolum vero tam conspicabilem et subjectum oculis habebat, ut sive se in propriâ substantiâ contineret, sive in diversas figuras spiritualesque nequitias transtulisset, qualibet ab eo sub imagine videretur” Once Martin promised the Devil the

Divine forgiveness at the Day of Judgement, on his ceasing to persecute, and his repentance of his sins. “Ego tibi vero confisus in Domino, Christi misericordiam polliceor.” The heterodox charity of St. Martin did not meet the same aversion as the heterodox theology of Origen. •

^q See vol iii p. 267.

^r Grimm. Mythologie, p. 568.

^s Mark iii. 23. John xiii. 27 Edit. Zaha.

heathenism the infernal Deities were perhaps earlier, certainly were more universally, than the deities of Olympus. darkened into the Demons, Fiends, Devils of the Christian belief; so from the Northern mythology, Lok and Hela, before and in a greater degree than Odin or the more beneficent and warlike Gods, were relegated into Devils. Pluto was already black enough, terribly hideous enough, cruel and unrelenting enough; he ruled in Tartarus, which was, of course, identified with Hell: so Lok, with his consummate wickedness, and consummate wiliness, as the enemy of all good, lent and received much of the power and attributes of Satan.

The reverent withdrawal not only of the Primal Parental Godhead, the Father, but likewise of the two coeternal Persons of the Trinity into their unapproachable solitude, partly perhaps the strong aversion to Manichæism, kept down, as it were, the antagonism between Good and Evil into a lower sphere. The Satar of Latin Christianity was no Eastern, almost coeval, coequal Power with Christ; he was the fallen Archangel, one it might be of the highest, in that thrice-triple Hierarchy of Angelic Beings. His mortal enemy is not God, but St. Michael. How completely this was the popular belief may appear from one illustration, the Chester Mystery of the Fall of Lucifer.¹ This drama, performed by the guilds in a provincial city in England, solves the insoluble problem of the origin of Evil through the intense pride of Lucifer. God himself is present on the scene; the nine Orders remonstrate

¹ Thus speaks Lucifer to the Celestial Hierarchy:

Destrea, I communde you for to cease,
And see the hewtye that I beare,
All Heaven shines through my brightnes,
For God himself shines not so clear.—*Chester Mysteries*, p. 12.

against the overweening haughtiness of Lucifer, who, with his Devils, is cast down into the dark dungeon prepared for them.

But in general the sublimity even of this view of the Antagonist Power of Evil mingles not with the popular conception. It remained for later Poetry: it was, indeed, reserved for Milton to raise his image of Satan to appalling grandeur; and Milton, true to tradition, to reverential feeling, to the solemn serene grandeur of the Saviour in the Gospel, leaves the contest, the war with Satan, to the subordinate Angels and to Michael, the Prince of the Angels. The Son, as coequal in Godhead, sits aloof in his inviolate majesty.*

The Devil, the Devils of the dark ages, are in the vulgar notion something far below the Lucifer, the fallen Son of the Morning. They are Devils merely hideous, hateful, repulsive—often, to show the power of the Saint, contemptible. The strife for the mastery of the world is not through terrible outbursts of power. The mighty destructive agencies which war on mankind are the visitations of God, not the spontaneous, inevitable, or even permitted devastations of Satan. It is not through the loftier passions of man, it is mostly

* Remark Milton's wonderful sublimity, not merely in his central figure of him, who had not "lost all his original brightness," who was "not less than archangel ruined," but in his creation, it may also be said, out of Selden's book, and the few allusions in the Old Testament, of a new Demonology. He throws aside the old Patriarchic Hierarchy of Devils, the gods of Greece and Rome, whom the revival of classical literature had now reinstated in their majesty and beauty, as

seen in the Poets. He raises up in their stead the biblical adversaries of the Godhead of the Old Testament; the Deities of the nations, Canaan and Syria, circumjacent and hostile to the Jews. Before Milton, if Moloch, Belial, Mammon, were not absolutely unknown to poetry, they had no proper and distinct poetic existence. I owe the germ of this observation, perhaps more than the germ, to my friend Mr. Macaulay.

by petty tricks and small annoyances, that the Evil One endeavours to mislead or molest the Saint. Even when he offers temptations on a larger scale, there is in general something cowardly or despicable; his very tricks are often out-tricked. The form which he assumed, the attributes of the form, the horns, the tail, the cloven foot, are vulgar and ludicrous. The stench which betrays his presence, his howlings and screechings are but coarse and grovelling. At first, indeed, he was hardly permitted to assume the human form:^{*} his was a monstrous combination of all that was most ugly and hateful in the animal shape. If Devils at times assumed beautiful forms, as of wanton women to tempt the Saints, or entered into and possessed women of attractive loveliness, it was only for a time; they withdrew and shrunk back to their own proper and native hideousness.

Even Dante's Devils have but a low and menial malignity; they are base and cruel executioners, torturers, with a fierce but dastardly delight in the pains they inflict. The awful and the terrible is in the human victims: their passions, their pride, ambition, cruelty, avarice, treachery, revenge, alone have anything of the majesty of guilt: it is the diabolic in man, not the Devils acting upon men and through men, which makes the moral grandeur of his *Inferno*.

The symbol under which the Devil, Satan as Lucifer, as well as his subordinate fiends, are represented

^{*} "Alors qu'aux yeux du vulgaire p. 198.
celui-ci fut devenu un être hideux, M. Maury says that the most
incobèrent assemblage des formes les ancient representation of the Devil in
plus animales, et les plus effrayantes; human form is in an ivory diptych of
un personnage grotesque à force d'être the time of Charles the Bald, p. 136,
laid." — Maury, *Légendes Piéuses*, note. See also text.

throughout this period, the Serpent, was sometimes terrific, often sunk to the low and the ludicrous.

This universal emblem of the Antagonist ^{The Serpent} Power of evil runs through all religions⁷ (though here and there the Serpent is the type of the Beneficent Deity, or, coiled into a circular ring, of eternity).⁸ The whole was centered in the fearful image of the great Dragon in the Apocalypse. St. Michael slaying the Dragon is among the earliest emblems of the triumph of Good over Evil. From an emblem it became a religious historical fact. And hence, doubtless, to a great extent, the Dragon of Romance; St. George is but another St. Michael of human descent. The enmity of the serpent to the race of man, as expressed and seemingly countenanced by the Book of Genesis, adds wiliness to the simply terrible and destructive monster. Almost every legend teems with serpent demons. Serpents are the most dire torturers in hell. The worm that never dieth (Dante's great Worm) is not alone; snakes with diabolic instincts, or snakes actually devils, and rioting in the luxury of preying on the vital and sensitive parts of the undying damned, are everywhere the dreadful instruments of everlasting retribution.

Closely connected with these demoniac influences was the belief in magic, witchcraft, spells, talismans, conjurations. These were all the actual delusions or operations of obedient or assistant Evil Spirits. The Legislature of the Church and of the State, from Con-

⁷ The connexion of the Dragon, the wolf, the swine. It would be impossible to enter in such a work, as this into the endless detail.

⁸ The ample references of M. Maury on this subject might be enlarged. See too the work of Mr. Denne on the beast out of other notions, the lion, Worship of the Serpent.

stantine down to a late period, the post-Papal period of Christianity; Roman, Barbarian, even modern Codes recognised as real facts all these wild hallucinations of our nature, and by arraying them in the dignity of heretical, impious, and capital offences, impressed more deeply and perpetuated the vulgar belief. They have now almost, but by no means altogether, vanished before the light of reason and of science. The most obstinate fanaticism only ventures to murmur, that in things so universally believed, condemned by Popes and Councils, and confirmed by the terrible testimony of the excommunication and the execution of thousands of miserable human beings, there must have been something more than our incredulous age will acknowledge.* Wisdom and humanity may look with patience, with indulgence, with sympathy, on many points of Christian superstition, as bringing home to hearts which would otherwise have been untouched, unsoftened, unconsoled, the blessed influences and peace of religion; but on this sad chapter, extending far beyond the dark ages, it will look with melancholy, indeed, but unmitigated reprobation. The whole tendency was to degrade and brutalise human nature: to degrade by encouraging the belief in such monstrous follies; to brutalise by the pomp of public executions, conducted with the solemnity of civil and religious state.

All this external world-environing world of Beings possessed the three great attributes, ubiquity, incessant activity with motion in unappreciable time, personality. God was not more omnipresent, more all-knowing, more cognisant of the inmost secrets of the human heart than

* See Góires, *Christliche Mystik*, that strange erudite rhapsody, which, with all its fervour, fails to convince us that the author was in earnest.

were these angelic or demon hosts. These divine attributes might be delegated, derivative, permitted for special purposes ; but human fear and hope lost sight of this distinction, and invested every one of the countless preternatural agents in independent, self-existent, self-willed life. They had, too, the power of assuming any forms ; of endless and instantaneous transmutation.

But the angels were not the only guardians and protectors of the faithful against the swarming, busy, indefatigable malignant spirits, which claimed the world of man as their own. It might seem as if human weakness required something less palpable, more sensibly real, more akin to itself, than beings of light and air, which encircled the throne of God. Those Beings, in, ^{The Saints.} their essence immaterial, or of a finer and more ethereal matter, might stoop to earth, or might be constantly hovering between earth and heaven ; but besides them, as it were of more distinct cognisance by man, were those who, having worn the human form, retained it, or reassumed it, as it were clothing over their spiritualised being. The Saints, having been human, were more easily, more naturally conceived as still endowed with human sympathies ; intermediate between God and man, but with an imperishable ineffaceable manhood more closely bound up with man. The doctrine of the Church, the Communion of Saints, implied the Church militant and the Church triumphant. The Christians yet on earth, the Christians already in heaven, formed but one polity ; and if there was this kindred, if it may be so said, religious consanguinity, it might seem disparagement to their glory and to their union with Christ to banish the Saints to a cold unconscious indifference, and abase them to ignorance of the concerns of their brethren still in the flesh.

Each Saint partook, therefore, of the instinctive omniscience of Christ. While unabsorbed in the general beatified community, he kept up his special interest and attachment to the places, the companions, the fraternities of his earthly sojourn; he exercised, according to his will, at least by intercession, a beneficent influence; he was tutelar within his sphere, and therefore within that sphere an object of devout adoration. And so, as ages went on, saints were multiplied and deified. I am almost unwilling to write it; yet assuredly, hardly less, if less than Divine power and Divine will was assigned by the popular sentiment to the Virgin and the Saints. They intercepted the worship of the Almighty Father, the worship of the Divine Son. To them, rather than through them, prayer was addressed; their shrines received the more costly oblations; they were the rulers, the actual disposing Providence on earth: God might seem to have abandoned the Sovereignty of the world to those subordinate yet all-powerful agencies.

High above all this innumerable Host of Saints and Martyrs, if not within the Trinity (it were not easy, if we make not large allowance for the wild language of rapturous adoration, to draw any distinction), hardly below, was seated the Queen of Heaven.^b The worship of the Virgin, since the epoch of Gregory the Great, had been constantly on the ascendant; the whole progress of Christian thought and feeling converged towards this end.^c The passionate adoration of the Virgin

^b "At qualis currus, cuius aurigæ sunt immortales Spiritus!
Qualis illa quæ ascendit, et cui Deus fit obvlus!
Hæc est Regina natura, et pene gratiæ
Tail pompæ excipiendæ est quæ Deum exceperat.
Adsurgæ, anima, dlo aliquid sublimius
Adve adventum Mariæ regnabant in cælo
træ personæ.

Nec regnabant tres Reges,
Alterum thronum addidit homo Deus,
Adventante Mariæ tertius thronus est additus
Et nunc triplex in cælo regnum est, ubi erat unicum
Sedet proxima Deo mater Dei."
Labbé in Elogiis.—Comp Augusti, v. iii p. 55

^c Compare on the earlier period

was among the causes of the discomfiture of Nestorianism—the discomfiture of Nestorianism deepened the passion. The title “Mother of God” had been the watchword of the feud; it became the cry of victory. Perhaps as the Teutonic awe tended to throw back into more remote incomprehensibility the spiritual Godhead, and therefore the more distinct human image became more welcome to the soul; so perhaps the purer and loftier Teutonic respect for the female sex was more prone to the adoration of the Virgin Mother. Iconoclasm, as the images of the Virgin Mother, then perhaps usually with the Child, were more frequent and regarded with stronger attachment, would seem a war specially directed against the blessed Mary; her images, when they rose again, or, as was common, smiled again on the walls, would be the objects of still more devout wonder and love. She would vindicate her exalted dignity by more countless miracles, and miracles would be multiplied at once by the frantic zeal and by the more easy credulity of her triumphant worshippers; she would glorify herself, and be glorified without measure. It was the same in the East and in the West. The East had early adopted in the popular creed the groundwork, at least, of the Gospel of the Infancy and of the other spurious Gospels, which added so prodigally to the brief allusions to the Mother in the genuine Gospels.^a The Emperor Heraclius, it has been seen, had the Virgin on his banner of war; to the tutelar protection of the Virgin Constantinople looked against the Saracen and

Beugnot, *Destruction du Paganisme*, n. 267. The whole subject of the progress of the worship of the Virgin, in Augusti, *Denkwürdigkeiten*, iii. pp. 1 *et seqq.*, with ample illustrations. ^a Perhaps the reception of these into the Koran as part of the universal Christian belief is the most striking proof of this.

the Turk. Chivalry above all would seem, as it were, to array the Christian world as the Church militant of the Virgin.* Every knight was the sworn servant of our Lady; to her he looked for success in battle—strange as it may sound, for success in softer enterprises.[†] Poetry took even more irreverent licence; its adoration in its intensity became revoltingly profane. Instead of hallowing human passion, it brought human passion into the sphere of adoration, from which it might have been expected to shrink with instinctive modesty. Yet it must be known in its utmost phrensy to be judged rightly.[‡]

So completely was this worship the worship of Christendom, that every cathedral, almost every spacious church, had its Chapel of our Lady. In the hymns to the Virgin, in every breviary, more especially in her own "Hours" (the great universal book of devotion) not merely is the whole world and the celestial world put under contribution for poetic images, not only is all the luxuriance and copiousness of language exhausted, a new vocabulary is invented to express the yet inexpressible homage; pages follow pages of glowing similitudes, rising one above another. In the Psalter of the

* On the chivalrous worship of the Virgin, Le Grand d'Aussy, *Fabliaux*, v. 27.

† The poetry of the Troubadours is full of this.

‡ "C'est ainsi que le même Gautier (de Coron.) conçut pour la Vierge Mais un amour véritable, qui l'enflamma, le devora toute sa vie. Elle était pour lui ce qu'est une amante pour le plus passionné des hommes. Il réunissait pour elle toutes les beautés qu'il apercevait dans les religieuses

d'un couvent qu'il dirigeait; lui adressait chaque jour des vers pleins d'amour, d'erotiques chansons, il la voyait dans ses rêves, et quelquefois même quand il veillait, sous les formes les plus voluptueuses, et la croyait l'héroïne des mille aventures, que, dans son délire, il inventait, et puis racontait en vers innombrables."—*Hist. Littéraire de la France*, xix. p. 843.

To purify his imagination from this, let the reader turn to Petrarch's noble ode "Vergine bella, che di sol vestita."

Virgin almost all the incommunicable attributes of the Godhead are assigned to her; she sits between Cherubim and Seraphim; she commands, by her maternal influences, if not by authority, her Eternal Son.^a To the Festivals of the Annunciation and the Purification (or the Presentation of Christ in the Temple) was added that of the Assumption of the Virgin.¹ A rich and copious legend revealed the whole history of her birth and life, of which the Sacred Scriptures were altogether silent, but of which the spurious Gospels furnished many incidents,² thus, as it were, taking their rank as authorities with the Apostolic four. And all this was ere long to be embodied in Poetry, and, it might seem, more imperishably in Art. The latest question raised about the Virgin—her absolute immunity from the sin of Adam—is the best illustration of the strength and vitality of the belief. Pious men could endure the discussion. Though St. Bernard, in distinct words which cannot be explained away, had repudiated the Immaculate Conception of the Virgin³—though it was rejected by Thomas Aquinas,⁴ that Conception without any taint of hereditary sin, grew up under the authority of the rival of Aquinas. It became the subject of contention and controversy, from which the calmer Christian shrinks with intuitive repugnance. It divided the Dominicans

^a "Excelsus super Cherubim Thronus ejus, et sedes ejus super cardines celi." — Ps. cxlii. "Domina Angelorum, regina Mundi!" — Ps. xxxix. "Quod Deus imperio, tu piece, Virgo, facis—Jure matris impera filio!"

¹ Titian's Assumption of the Virgin at Venice, to omit the Murillos, and those of countless inferior artists.

² See these Gospels in Thilo, *Codex Apocryphus*.

³ "Mariam in peccato conceptam, cum et ipsa vulgari modo per libidinem maris et femine concepta est." One is almost unwilling to quote in Latin what St. Bernard wrote. Ad canon. Lugdun. It is true St. Bernard made a vague submission on this, as on other points, to the judgement of the Church.

⁴ *Summa Theologiæ*, iii. 27, and in coarse terms.

and Franciscans into hostile camps, and was agitated with all the wrath and fury of a question in which was involved the whole moral and religious welfare of mankind.^o None doubted^p that it was within the lawful sphere of theology.^q Wonderful as it may seem, a doctrine rejected at the end of the twelfth century by the last Father of the Latin Church, has been asserted by a Pope of the nineteenth, and a Council is now sitting in grave debate in Rome on the Immaculate Conception.^r

The worship of the Saints might seem to be endangered by their multiplicity, by their infinity. The crowded calendar knew not what day it could assign to the new Saint without clashing with, or dispossessing, an old one; it was forced to bear an endless accumulation on some favoured days. The East and the West vied with each other in their fertility. The Greek Menologies are not only as copious, in the puerility

^o When the stranger travelling in Spain arrived at midnight at a convent-gate, and uttered his "*Santísima Virgen*," he knew by the answer either "*Sin pecado concebida*," or by the silence with which the door opened, whether it was a Franciscan or a Dominican.

^p Singular it may seem, the doctrine was first authorised by the reforming (heterodox?) Council of Basle, A.D. 1439. Session xiv. vi.

^q Even such a writer as Augustin Theiner *was*, can write such pages as appear in the *Vie de Clément XIV.*, i. p. 341.

^r Is there not wisdom enough in the Church, which has never been thought wanting in wisdom, to consider whether it is wise to inflame a passionate

paroxysm of devotion in a very few, and to throw back, by an inevitable revulsion, and by so fatal an argument placed in their hands, multitudes into utter unbelief and contempt of all religion?—So had I written in 1854. the Council has passed its decree, by all who own its authority the Immaculate Conception is admitted, or, what is very different, not denied to be an Article of the Christian creed. But is not the utter and total apathy with which it has been received (one day's Spectacle at Rome, and nearly silent indifference throughout Christendom) the most remarkable sign of the times—the most unanswerable proof of the prostration of the strength of the Roman Church? There is not life enough for a schism on this vital point

and trivialness of their wonders they even surpass the Western Hagiologies. But of the countless Saints of the East, few comparatively were received in the West. The East as disdainfully rejected many of the most famous, whom the West worshipped with the most earnest devotion; they were ignorant even of their names. It may be doubted if an Oriental ever uttered a prayer in the name of St. Thomas of Canterbury. Still that multiplicity of Saints, as it bore unanswerable witness to the vigour of its belief, so also to its vitality. It was constantly renewing its youth by the elevation of more favourite and recent objects of adoration. Every faculty, every feeling, every passion, every affection, every interest was for centuries in a state of perpetual excitement to quicken, keep alive, and make more intense this wonder-fed and wonder-seeking worship. The imagination, the generous admiration of transcendent goodness, of transcendent learning, or, what was esteemed even more Christian, transcendent austerity; rivalry of Church with Church, of town with town, of kingdom with kingdom, of Order with Order; sordid interest in the Priesthood who possessed, and the people who were permitted to worship, and shared in the fame, even in the profit, from the concourse of worshippers to the shrine of a celebrated Saint; gratitude for blessings imputed to his prayers, the fruitful harvest, protection in war, escape in pestilence; fear lest the offended Saint should turn away his face; the strange notion that Saints were under an obligation to befriend their worshippers; the still bolder Brahminical notion that Saints might be compelled by the force of prayer, or even by the lavish oblation, to interpose their reluctant influence;—against all this stood one faculty of man alone, and that with difficulty roused out of its

long lethargy, rebuked, cowed, proscribed, shuddering at what might be, which was sure to be, branded as impiety—the Reason. Already in the earliest period to doubt the wild wonders related of St. Martin of Tours is to doubt the miracles of the Gospel.* Popular admiration for some time enjoyed, unchecked, the privilege of canonisation. A Saint was a Saint, as Canonisation. it were, by acclamation; and this acclamation might have been uttered in the rudest times, as during the Merovingian rule in France; or within a very limited sphere, as among our Anglo-Saxon ancestors, so many of whose Saints were contemptuously rejected by the Norman Conqueror. Saints at length multiplying thus beyond measure, the Pope assumed the prerogative of advancing to the successive ranks of Beatitude and Sanctity. If this checked the deification of such perplexing multitudes, it gave still higher authority to those who had been recognised by more general consent, or who were thus more sparingly admitted to the honours of Beatification and Sanctification (those steps, as it were, of spiritual promotion were gradually introduced). The Saints ceased to be local divinities; they were proclaimed to Christendom, in the irrefragable Bull, as worthy of general worship.[†]

There were some, of course, the universal Saints of

* “*Ququam minime mirum sit si in operibus Martini infirmitas humana dubitaverit, cum multos hodieque videmus, nec Evangelicis quidem credidisse*”—Sulp. Sever., *Dial.* ii. 15. Sulpicius almost closes the life of St. Martin with these words: “*De cetero si quis infideliter legent, ipse peccabit.*”

† Canonisation has been distributed

into three periods. Down to the tenth century the Saint was exalted by the popular voice, the suffrage of the people with the Bishop. In the intermediate period the sanction of the Pope was required, but the Bishops retained their right of initiation. Alexander III. seized into the hands of the Pope alone this great and abused Prerogative—Mabillon, *Act. S. Benedict. V.* in *Præf*

Christendom, the Apostles, the early martyrs; some of Latin Christendom, the four great Fathers of the Latin Church; some few, like St. Thomas of Canterbury, the martyr of the ecclesiastical Order, would be held up by the whole Hierarchy as the pattern and model of sanctity; St. Benedict, in all the Benedictine monasteries, the founders or reformers of the Monastic Institutes, St. Odo, St. Stephen Harding, St. Bernard, St. Romuald, St. Norbert. At a later period, and, above all, wherever there were Mendicant Friars (and where were there not?), St. Dominic and St. Francis would have their images raised, their legends read and promulgated with the utmost activity, and their shrines heaped with offerings. Each Order was bound especially to hold up the Saints of the Order; it was the duty of all who wore the garb to spread their fame with special assiduity." The Dominicans and Franciscans could boast others besides their founders: the Dominicans the murdered Inquisitor Peter the Martyr, and St. Thomas Aquinas; the Franciscans St. Antony of Padua, and San Bonaventura. Their portraits, their miracles, were painted in the churches, in the cloisters of the Friars;

" The great authority for the Lives of the Saints, of course with strong predilection for the Saints of the West, is the vast Collection of the Bollandists, even in the present day proceeding towards its termination. On the origin and the writers of this Collection, consult Pitra, *Etudes sur la Collection des Actes des Saints par les Jesuites Bollandistes*. To me the whole beauty and value is in the original contemporary form (as some, for instance, are read in Pertz, *Monumenta Germaniæ*). In the Bollandists, or even in the Golden Legend of

Jacob a Voragine, they become cold and controversial; the original documents are overlaid with dissertation. Later writers, like Alban Butler, are apologetic, cautious, always endeavouring to make the incredible credible. In the recent Lives of the English Saints, some of them admirably told, there is a sort of chilly psychological justification of belief utterly irreconcilable with belief; the writers urge that we ought to believe, what they themselves almost confess that they can only believe, or fancy they believe, out of duty, not of faith.

hymns in their name, or sentences, were chanted in the services. All these were world-wide Saints: their shrines arose in all lands, their churches or chapels sprung up in all quarters. Others had a more limited fame, though within the pale of that fame their worship was performed with loyal fidelity, their legend read, their acts and miracles commemorated by architecture, sculpture, painting. As under the later Jewish belief each Empire had its guardian Angel, so each kingdom of Christendom had its tutelar Saint. France had three, who had each his sacred city, each, as it were, succeeded to, without dispossessing, the other. St. Martin of Tours was the older; St. Remi, who baptised Clovis into the Catholic Church, had an especial claim on all of Frankish descent. But, as Paris rose above Tours and Rheims, so rose St. Denys, by degrees, to be the leading Saint of France. St. Louis was the Saint of the royal race.* St. Jago of Compostella, the Apostle St. James, had often led the conquering Spaniard against the Mussulman. The more peaceful Boniface, with others of the older missionaries, was honoured by a better title in Germany. Some of the patron Saints, however, of the great Western kingdoms are of a later period, and sprung probably out of romance, perhaps were first inscribed on the banners to distinguish the several nations during the Crusades. For the dignity of most of these Saints there is sufficient legendary reason: as of St. Denys in France, St. James in Spain, St. Andrew in Scotland (there was a legend of the

* Charlemagne was a Saint (Baronius, sub ann. 814). He was unfortunately canonised by a Pseudo-Pope (Pascul). He was worshipped at Aux-la-Chapelle, Hildesheim, Osnaburg, Minden, Halberstadt—thus a German rather than a French Saint. See the Hymn to him, Daniel, i. p. 305, from the Halberstadt Breviary.

Apostle's conversion of Scotland), St. Patrick in Ireland. England, however, instead of one of the old Roman or Saxon Saints, St. Alban, or St. Augustine, placed herself under the tutelar guardianship of a Saint of very doubtful origin, St. George.* In Germany alone, notwithstanding some general reverence for St. Boniface, each kingdom or principality, even every city, town, or village had its own Saint. The history of Latin Christianity may be traced in its more favoured Saints, first Martyrs, then Bishops, then Fathers, Jerome, Augustine, Gregory, then Monks (the type St. Benedict). As the Church grew in wealth, Kings or Nobles, magnificent donors, were the Saints; as it grew in power, rose Hierarchical Saints, like Becket. St. Louis was the Saint of the Crusades and Chivalry; St. Thomas Aquinas and Bonaventura of Scholasticism. Female prophets might seem chosen to vie with those of the Fraticelli and of the Heretics; St. Catherine of Sienna, St. Bridget,† those Brides of Christ, who had constant personal intercourse with the Saints, with the Virgin, with our Lord himself. In later days Christian charity, as well as Mysticism, had its Saints, St. Vincent de Paul, with St. Teresa, and St. Francis de Sales.

* Dr. Milner (the Roman Catholic) wrote an Essay against Gibbon's assertion that "the infamous George of Cappadocia became the patron Saint of England." He was, I think, so far successful, but it is much more easy to say who St. George was not than who he was.

† St. Bridget was beatified by Boniface IX., canonised by John XXIII. at the Council of Constance, confirmed by St. Martin. The Swedes were earnest for their Saint (and she had had the merit of urging the return of

the Popes from Avignon). But Gerson threw some rationalising doubts on the visions of St. Bridget, and on the whole bevy of female saints, which he more than obviously hinted might be the dupes or accomplices of artful Confessors. The strange wild rhapsodies, the visions of St. Bridget, under the authority of Turreciemata, were avouched by the Council of Basle. See Gerson's Tracts, especially de probatione spirituum, de distinctione verarum visionum a falsis.—*Heijot*, iv. p. 25. Shroock, xxxiii. p. 129, &c.

To assert, to propagate the fame, the miracles, of his proper Saint was the duty of every King, of every burgher, of every parishioner, more especially of the Priesthood in the Church dedicated to his memory, which usually boasted of his body buried under the high altar, or of reliques of that body. Most churches had a commemorative Anniversary of the Saint, on which his wonders were the subjects of inexhaustible sermons. It was the great day of pomp, procession, rejoicing, feasting, sometimes rendered more attractive by some new miracle, by some marvellous cure, some devil ejected, something which vied with or outdid the wonders of every neighbouring Saint. Of old, the Saint-worshippers were more ambitious. In the days of St. Martin, Sulpicius Severus urges on his friend Posthumianus to publish everywhere, in his distant travel or on his return from the East, the fame of St. Martin.* “Pass not Campania; make him known to the holy Paulinus, through him it will be published in Rome, in Italy, and in Illyricum. If you travel to the right, let it be heard in Carthage, where he may rival Cyprian; if to the left, in Corinth, who will esteem him wiser than Plato, more patient than Socrates. Let Egypt, let Asia hear the fame of the Gaulish Saint.” That, however, was when Saints were rare. More restricted commerce, and the pre-occupation of every land, every city, every church with its own patron Saint, confined within the province, city, or hamlet, all who had not some universal claim to respect, or some wide-spread fraternity to promulgate their name. Yet though there might be jealousy or rivalry in the worship of distant or neighbouring Saints; as the heathens denied not the

* “Dum recurris diversasque regiones, loca, portus, insulas, urbesque præter legis, Martini nomen et gloriam sparge per populos.”—V. S. Martini, Dialog. iii. p. 568.

gods of other nations, even hostile nations, whom themselves did not worship as gods; so none would question the saintship, the intercessory powers, the marvels of another Saint.

Thus throughout Christendom was there to every community and every individual man an Inter-
cessor with the one Great Intercessor between

Legends.

God and man, some intermediate being, less awful, more humble, whose office, whose charge, almost whose duty, it was to speed, or who, if offended, might withhold the suppliant orison. Every one of these Saints had his life of wonder, the legend of his virtues, his miracles, perhaps his martyrdom, his shrines, his reliques. The legend was to his votaries a sort of secondary Gospel, wrought into the belief by the constant iteration of its names and events. The legend, in truth, was the dominant, universal poetry of the times. Unless it had been poetry it had not ruled the mind of man; but, having been poetry, it must submit to remain poetry. It is the mythic literature of Christendom,^b interminable in its extent; but, as its whole life is in its particularity, it suffers and withers into dulness by being brought into a

^b M. Maury's work, "Les Legendes Pieuses," has exhausted the subject. The more cautious readers must be warned that M. Maury carries up his system, where few Christians will follow him, with hardly less audacity than Strauss himself, into the Scriptural narratives. But while we admit that the desire of conformity with the Life of the Saviour suggested a great part of the incidents, and that the Gospel miracles suggested the miracles of the later Saints—the originality, the truth, the unapproachable dignity

of the Gospel type is not only unimpaired, but to me becomes only more distinct and real. There is an intimate harmony, nowhere else found, between the moral and the supernatural. The line appears in my judgement broad and clear; and those who, like the modern advocates for the belief of the middle ages, resolve the whole into the attainment of a proper frame of mind to receive legend as truth, seem to me to cut up altogether all belief in miracle.

Compare some good observations of M. Ampère, *Leçon XIV.*

more compendious form; and so it is that Hagiography has withdrawn into its proper domain, and left the province of human affairs to history, which is not disdainful, of course, of the incidental information or illustration of events, manners, characters, which transpire through the cloud of marvels. Even the philosophy of history endeavours only to divine how men believed, or believed that they believed, this perpetual suspension or abrogation of the laws of nature; how that which was then averred on the authority of experience has now fallen into neglect as contrary to all experience: so that even the most vigorous attempt to reinstate them is received as a desperate, hardly serious, effort of paradoxical ingenuity, falls dead on the general mind, hardly provokes scorn or ridicule, and, in fact, is transcended in interest by every transitory folly or new hallucination which seems to be the indispensable aliment required by some part of mankind in the highest as in the lowest social or intellectual state.

The legend was perpetually confirmed, illustrated, kept alive by the substantial, if somewhat dimly and mysteriously shown, reliques which were either
Reliques. in the church, under the altar, or upon the altar; the treasure of the community, or the property, the talisman of the prelate, the noble, or the king. The reliquary was the most precious ornament in the lady's chamber, in the knight's armoury, in the king's hall of state, as well as in that of the Bishop or the Pope. Our history has perhaps dwelt on reliques with sufficient frequency. Augustine, in the earlier times, had reproved the wandering monks who made a trade of selling martyrs' limbs, "if indeed they are the limbs of martyrs."^a

^a De oper. Monachorum. c. 8.

The Theodosian Code had prohibited the violation of the tombs of the martyrs, and the removal and sale of their bodies.⁴ Gregory the Great had reformed the Greek practice of irreverently disinterring and sending about the bodies of Saints: he refused to the Empress of Constantinople reliques of St. Paul.⁵ We have seen with what jealous parsimony he distributed the filings of the chains of St. Peter.⁶ But, as the world darkened, these laws fell into desuetude: the first reverential feeling died away. In truth, to the multiplication, dissemination, veneration of reliques conspired all the weaknesses, passions, innate and seemingly unextinguishable propensities, of mankind; the fondness for cherishing memorials of the beloved, in human affection so excusable, so amiable, how much more so of objects of holy love, the Saints, the Blessed Virgin, the Saviour himself! the pride of possessing what is rare; the desire to keep alive religious associations and religious thoughts; the ignorance of the priesthood, the pious fraud of the priesthood, admitted to be Christian virtue in order to promote devotion and so the spiritual welfare of man. Add to all this the inherent indefeasible power ascribed to reliques to work miracles. No wonder that, with the whole Christian world deeming it meritorious and holy to believe, dangerous, impious to doubt, there should be no end or limit to belief; that the wood of the true Cross should grow into a forest; that wild fictions, the romance of the Wise Men of the East transmuted into kings, the Eleven Thousand Virgins, should be worshipped in the rich commercial cities on the Rhine; that delicacy and even reverence should not take offence, as at the milk

⁴ "Humanum corpus nemo ad alterum locum transferat, nemo matrem de trahat, nemo mercetur."

⁵ Ad Imperat. Constant.—Compare Act. Ordinis S. Benedicti II. Præf. xxx.
⁶ Vol. u. p. 153.

of the Blessed Virgin; that the most perishable things should become imperishable, the garments of the Saviour and the Saints. Not even the fiercest feuds could detect imposture. Tours and Poitiers quarrelled for the body of St. Martin: St. Benedict was stolen away from Italy: we have seen the rejoicing at his arrival in France; and the expedition sent by Eginhard to Italy in search of pious plunder. There were constant wars between monastery and monastery; marauding campaigns were carried on against some neighbouring treasure-house. France was smitten with famine, because Clotaire II. cut off and stole an arm of St. Denys, under the instigation of the Devil.^s It was virtue in St. Ouen to steal the head of St. Marculph. But as to disputing the genuineness, unless of rival reliques, or questioning their wonder-working power, it never entered into the profane thought of man. How the Crusades immeasurably increased the wealth of Western Christendom in reliques, how they opened an important branch of traffic, needs no further illustration. To the very verge of our historic period the worship of reliques is in its unshaken authority. At the close of the fourteenth century the Duke of Berry obtains a piece of the head of St. Hilary of Poitiers as a most splendid present for the city of Poitiers from the Abbey of St. Denys; ^h he had already obtained the chin.

^s Annales Dagobert. Herman Corner gives the price of some reliques. Egilmund, Archbishop of Canterbury, bought for his Church (A D. mxxi.) an arm of St. Augustine, at Pavia, for 100 talents of pure silver and one of gold.

^h "Particulum quantum capitis ejus sancti, a parte posteriori versus aurem dextram ad modum trianguli, in longi-

tudine et latitudine spacium trium digitorum."—Rel. de St. Denys. xiv. 16. The mutilation seems not to have been thought irreverent. See also the pious theft of reliques at Rome, recorded by the legend to the glory of St. Patrick. Todd's St. Patrick, p. 481. The good Hugh of Lincoln (see his Life recently printed (1864) among the Rolls Publications) was a great worshipper of

The exhibition of the Holy Coat of Treves—a treasure possessed by more than one other Church, and more than one avouched by Papal authority—may show how deep-rooted in human nature is this strange form of religiousness. One of the most remarkable illustrations of relique-worship occurs after the close of our history, during the pontificate of Æneas Sylvius, Pius II. The head of St. Andrew (Amalfi boasted the immemorial possession of the body) had been worshipped for centuries at Patras. As the Turks advanced in the Morea, the fugitive Despot would not leave this precious treasure exposed to the profane insults of the unbelievers. He carried it with him in his flight. Kings vied for the purchase; vast sums were offered. The Pope urged upon the Despot that he could not permit such a relique to repose anywhere but at Rome. The head of St. Andrew should rest by that of his brother St. Peter; the Saint himself would resist any other arrangement. The Despot arrived at Ancona with his freight. It was respected by the stormy seas. A Cardinal of the most blameless life was chosen to receive and inspect the relique; by what signs he judged the head to be that of St. Andrew we know not. But Romagna was in too dangerous a state to allow it at once to be transported to Rome; the fierce Piccinino or the atheist Malatesta would not have scrupled to have seized it for their own use, worshipped it, or sold it at an exorbitant price. It was conveyed for security to the strong fortress of Narni. When Piccinino's forces were dispersed, and peace restored, it was brought in stately procession to Rome. It was intended that the most glorious heads of St. Peter

reliques, and not always above the Mary Magdalene at Fecamp, to the temptation of purloining. See especially great indignation of the Monks, p. his biting off a chip of a bone of S. 317.

and St. Paul should go forth to meet that of their brother Apostle. But the vast mass of gold which enshrined, the cumbrous iron which protected, these reliques were too heavy to be moved: so without them the Pope, the Cardinals, the whole population of Rome thronged forth to the meadows near the Milvian Bridge. The Pope made an eloquent address to the head; a hymn was sung, entreating the Saint's aid in the discomfiture of the Turks. It rested that day on the altar of St. Maria del Popolo, was then conveyed through the city, decorated with all splendour (the Jubilee under Nicolas V. saw not Rome more crowded), to St. Peter's. Cardinal Bessarion preached a sermon; the head was deposited with those of his brother Apostles under the high altar.'

Throughout the middle ages the world after death continued to reveal more and more fully its awful secrets. Hell, Purgatory, Heaven became more distinct, if it may be so said, more visible. Their site, their topography, their torments, their trials, their enjoyments, became more conceivable, almost more palpable to sense: till Dante summed up the whole of this traditional lore, or at least, with a Poet's intuitive sagacity, seized on all which was most imposing, effective, real, and condensed

it in his three co-ordinate poems. That Hell

had a local existence, that immaterial spirits suffered bodily and material torments, none, or scarcely one hardy speculative mind, presumed to doubt.* Hell

Commentarii Pii II.

* Scotus Erigena, perhaps alone, dared to question the locality of Hell, and "the material tortures of the damned. "Diversas suppliciorum formas non localiter in quadam parte, veluti toto hujus visibilis creaturæ, et ut simpliciter dicam neque intra di-

versitatem totius naturæ a Deo conditæ futuras esse credimus; et neque nunc esse, et nusquam et nunquam." The punishment in which Erigena believed was terrible remorse of conscience, the sense of impossible repentance or pardon. At the final absorption of all things (that genuine Indian absorption,

had admitted, according to legend, more than one visitant from this upper world, who returned to relate his fearful journey to wondering man: St. Fiercy,^m St. Vettin,ⁿ a layman, Bernilo.^o But all these early descents interest us only as they may be supposed or appear to have been faint types of the great Italian Poet. Dante is the one authorised topographer of the mediæval Hell.^p His originality is no more called in question by these mere signs and manifestations of the popular belief than by the existence and reality of those objects or scenes in external nature which he describes with such unrivalled truth.^q In Dante meet unreconciled (who thought of or cared for their reconciliation?) those strange contradictions, immaterial souls subject to material torments: spirits which had put off the mortal body, cognisable by the corporeal sense.^r The mediæval Hell had gathered

derived from his master the Pseudo-Dionysius), evil and sin would be destroyed for ever, not evil ones and sinners. Eugena boldly cites Origen, and extorts from other authorities an opinion to the same effect, of the final salvation, the return unto the Deity, of the Devil himself. There is nothing eternal but God. "Omne quod æternum in Deo solummodo intelligi; nec ulla æternitas extra eum qui solus est æternus et æternitas." He thus gets rid of all relating to eternal fire. Read the remarkable passage in the 5th book de Natura, from the xxvth. at least to xxxvth. chapters

^m Bede, iii. 19. Mabillon, Acta S. Benedicti, iii. 307. The Bollandists, Jan. ii. p. 44.

ⁿ Mabillon, iv. 272.

^o Flodoard, iii. 3.

^p See Damiani's Hell and Heaven,

iv. Ep. xiv. viii. 2. Consult also Cædmon.

^q There is a strange book, written at the beginning of the seventeenth century, "De Inferno," by Antonio Rusca (Milan, 1621). It is dedicated with fearful simplicity to our Saviour. It settles gravely, logically, as it would be supposed, authoritatively, and not without erudition, every question relating to Hell and its Inhabitants, its place, extent, divisions, torments.

^r This was embarrassing to the philosophic heathen. "Tantum valuit enim, ut corpora cremata cum scirent, tamen ea heri apud inferos fingerent, quæ sine corporibus nec fieri possant nec intelligi. Animos enim per seipso viventes non poterant mente complecti, formam aliquam figuramque querebant."—Cicer. Tusc. i. c. 16. Rusca lays it down as the Catholic doctrine

from all ages, all lands, all races, its imagery, its denizens, its site, its access, its commingling horrors; from the old Jewish traditions, perhaps from regions beyond the sphere of the Old Testament; from the Pagan poets, with their black rivers, their Cerberus, their boatman and his crazy vessel; perhaps from the Teutonic Hela, through some of the earlier visions. Then came the great Poet, and reduced all this wild chaos to a kind of order, moulded it up with the cosmical notions of the times, and made it, as it were, one with the prevalent mundane system. Above all, he brought it to the very borders of our world; he made the life beyond the grave one with our present life; he mingled in close and intimate relation the present and the future. Hell, Purgatory, Heaven, were but an immediate expansion and extension of the present world. And this is among the wonderful causes of Dante's power, the realising the unreal by the admixture of the real: even as in his imagery the actual, homely, everyday language or similitude mingles with and heightens the fantastic, the vague, the transmundane. What effect had Hell produced, if peopled by ancient, almost immemorial objects of human detestation, Nimrod or Iscariot, or Julian or Mohammed? It was when Popes all but living, Kings but now on their thrones, Guelfs who had hardly ceased to walk the streets of Florence, Ghibellines almost yet in exile, revealed their awful doom—this it was which, as it expressed the passions and the fears of mankind of an instant, immediate, actual, bodily, comprehensible place of torment:

"Docet tamen Catholica veritas, infernum malorum carcerem esse locum quendam materialem et corporeum." *l. c. xxiii.* The more enlightened Peter Lombard speaks of "non corporalem,

sed corpori similem." Souls were borne bodily to Heaven by visible Angels, fought for by visible Devils. See the battle for the Soul of King Dagobert. Maury, p. 80.

so, wherever it was read, it deepened that notion, and made it more distinct and natural. This was the Hell, conterminous to the earth, but separate, as it were, by a gulph passed by almost instantaneous transition, of which the Priesthood held the keys. These keys the audacious Poet had wrenched from their hands, and dared to turn on many of themselves, speaking even against Popes the sentence of condemnation. Of that which Hell, Purgatory, Heaven, were in popular opinion during the Middle Ages, Dante was but the full, deep, concentrated expression; what he embodied in verse all men believed, feared, hoped.

Purgatory had now its intermediate place between Heaven and Hell, as unquestioned, as undis-
Purgatory.
 turbed by doubt; its existence was as much an article of uncontested popular belief as Heaven or Hell. It was as unjust and unphilosophical to attribute all the legendary lore which realised Purgatory, to the sordid invention of the Churchman or the Monk, as it would be unhistorical to deny the use which was made of this superstition to exact tribute from the fears or the fondness of mankind. But the abuse grew out of the belief; the belief was not slowly, subtly, deliberately instilled into the mind for the sake of the abuse. Purgatory, possible with St. Augustine,* probable with Gregory the Great, grew up, I am persuaded (its growth is singularly indistinct and untraceable), out of the mercy and modesty of the Priesthood. To the eternity of Hell torments there is and ever must be— notwithstanding the peremptory decrees of dogmatic theology and the reverential dread in so many religious minds of tampering with what seems the language of

* De fide et oper., c. 16. On Gregory, see note, vol. ii. p. 157.

the New Testament—a tacit repugnance. But when the doom of every man rested on the lips of the Priest, on his absolution or refusal of absolution, that Priest might well tremble with some natural awe—awe not confessed to himself—at dismissing the soul to an irrevocable, unrepealable, unchangeable destiny. He would not be averse to pronounce a more mitigated, a reversible sentence. The keys of Heaven and of Hell were a fearful trust, a terrible responsibility; the key of Purgatory might be used with far less presumption, with less trembling confidence. Then came naturally, as it might seem, the strengthening and exaltation of the efficacy of prayer, of the efficacy of the religious ceremonials, of the efficacy of the sacrifice of the altar, and the efficacy of the intercession of the Saints: and these all within the province, within the power of the Sacerdotal Order. Their authority, their influence, their intervention, closed not with the grave. The departed soul was still to a certain degree dependent upon the Priest. They had yet a mission, it might be of mercy; they had still some power of saving the soul after it had departed from the body. Their faithful love, their inexhaustible interest might yet rescue the sinner; for he had not reached those gates—over which alone was written, “There is no Hope”—the gates of Hell. That which was a mercy, a consolation, became a trade, an inexhaustible source of wealth. Praying souls out of Purgatory by Masses said on their behalf, became an ordinary office, an office which deserved, which could demand, which did demand, the most prodigal remuneration. It was later that the Indulgence, originally the remission of so much penance, of so many days, weeks, months, years; or of that which was the commutation

Masses.

Indulgences.

for penance, so much almsgiving or munificence to churches or Churchmen, in sound at least extended (and mankind, the high and low vulgar of mankind, are governed by sound) its significance: it was literally understood, as the remission of so many years, sometimes centuries, of Purgatory.^t

If there were living men to whom it had been vouchsafed to visit and to return and to reveal the secrets of remote and terrible Hell, there were those too who were admitted in vision, or in actual life to more accessible Purgatory, and brought back intelligence of its real local existence, and of the state of souls within its penitential circles. There is a legend of St. Paul himself; of the French monk St. Farcy; of Drithelm, related by Bede; of the Emperor Charles the Fat, by William of Malmesbury. Matthew Paris relates two or three journeys of the Monk of Evesham, of Thunkill, an Essex peasant, very wild and fantastic. The Purgatory of St. Patrick, the Purgatory of Owen Miles, the vision of Alberic of Monte Casino, were among the most popular and wide-spread legends of the ages preceding Dante; and as in Hell, so in Purgatory, Dante sums up in his noble verses the whole theory, the whole popular belief as to this intermediate sphere.^u

^t "Unde quibusdam in locis concedebantur tandem expresse indulgentiæ a *pœnâ et a culpâ*, licet quidam summi Pontifices absurdum censuisse videntur aliquas indulgentias a *pœnâ et a culpâ* esse nominandas, cum a solo Deo culpa deleatur; et indulgentia est remissio *pœnæ temporalis*. . . . Unde quidam concessionem hujusmodi magis deceptionem quam indulgentiarum concessionem interpretantes cum eas intentu

lucri temporalis fieri judicabant, dicere non timebant; anima nostra nauseat super cibo levissimo."—Gobelinus Persona, p. 320. This was in Germany during the Schism, above a century before Luther.

^u Vincent of Beauvais. See the curious volume of Mr. Wright, *St. Patrick's Purgatory*, on Tundale, p. 32. &c. On Patrick's Purgatory in all its forms, as sanctioned by Popes, and

If Hell and Purgatory thus dimly divulged their gloomy mysteries, if they had been visited by those who returned to actual life, Heaven was unapproached, unapproachable. To be rapt to the higher Heaven remained the privilege of the Apostle; the popular conception was content to rest in modest ignorance. Though the Saints might descend on beneficent missions to the world of man; of the site of their beatitude, of the state of the Blest, of the joys of the supernal world, they brought but vague and indefinite tidings. In truth, the notion of Heaven was inextricably mingled up with the astronomical and cosmogonical as well as with the theological notions of the age. Dante's Paradise blends the Ptolemaic system with the nine angelic circles of the Pseudo Dionysius; the material heavens in their nine circles; above and beyond them, in the invisible heavens, the nine Hierarchies; and yet higher than the highest heavens the dwelling of the Ineffable Trinity. The Beatific Vision, whether immediate or to await the Last Day, had been eluded rather than determined, till the rash and presumptuous theology of Pope John XXII. compelled a declaration from the Church. But yet this ascent to the Heaven of Heavens would seem from Dante, the best interpreter of the dominant conceptions, to have

by the Bollandist writers, as it appears in Calderon's poetry, and as it is kept up by Irish popular superstition and priestcraft, Mr. Wright has collected many wild details. Papal authority, as shown by an Inscription in the cloister of S. Andrea and S. Gregorio in Rome, testifies to the fact, which, I suspect, would have startled S. Gregory him-

self, that he got a monk out of Purgatory at the expense of thirty masses.

D. O. M.

Clemens Papa X.

Cultum Clementium VIII. et VIII.

Imitatus.

In hoc S. Gregorii Templum.

Ubi xxx missis animam monachi

Ex igne purgatorio liberavit, &c.

Copied by an accomplished friend of the author.

been an especial privilege, if it may be so said, of the most Blessed of the Blessed, the Saint of Saints. There is a manifest gradation in Beatitude and Sanctity. According to the universal cosmical theory, the Earth, the round and level earth, was the centre of the whole system.* It was usually supposed to be encircled by the vast, circumambient, endless ocean; but beyond that ocean (with a dim reminiscence, it should seem, of the Elysian Fields of the poets) was placed a Paradise, where the souls of men hereafter to be blest, awaited the final resurrection. Dante takes the other theory:

* The Eastern notions may be gathered from the curious Treatise of Cosmas Indicopleustes, printed by Montfaucon, in his *Collectio Nova*. Cosmas wrote about A.D. 535. He is perhaps the earliest type of those who call themselves Scriptural Philosophers; with all the positiveness and contemptuousness of ignorance, he proves that the heavens are a vault, from Isaiah xi. 22; from Job, according to the LXX., and St. Paul's image of a Tabernacle. The second Prologue is to refute the notion that the earth is a sphere—the antipodes, which at first were not so disdainfully denied, are now termed *γραιώδεις μύθοι*: men would fall in opposite directions. Paradise is beyond the circumfluent Ocean, souls are received in Paradise till the last day (p. 315). He afterwards asserts the absolute incompatibility of the spherical notion of the earth with the resurrection. He gives several opinions, all of which, in his opinion, are equally wrong. *Οἱ μὲν ἐξ αὐτῶν τὰς ψυχὰς μόνας μετὰ θάνατον, περιπαλεῖν σὺν τῇ σφαίρῃ, καὶ ὁρᾶν ἥτοι γινώσκειν*

πάντα λέγουσι· οἱ δὲ καὶ μετενσώματῳσιν βούλονται, καὶ προβιοτὴν ἀσπάζουσι, οἷς καὶ ἔπεται λέγειν ἐξ ἀκολουθίας καταλύεσθαι τὴν σφαῖραν. The Heavens are indissoluble, and all spiritualised bodies are to ascend to heaven. He gets rid of the strong passages about the heavens passing away, as metaphors (this in others he treated as absurd or impious). He denies the authenticity of the Catholic Epistles.

It is remarkable that what I presume to call the Angelology of this Treatise shows it to be earlier than the Pseudo-Dionysius; that work cannot have been known to Cosmas. One office of the Angels is to move—they are the perpetual movers of, the Sun, Moon, and Stars. After the Last day, the stars, sun, and moon being no more wanted, the Angels will be released from their duty, p. 154. The Angels carry the rain up from heaven into the clouds, and so manage the stars as to cause Eclipses. These are guardian Angels. The Angels do not ascend above the stars, p. 315.

he peoples the nine material heavens—that is, the cycle of the Moon, Venus, Mercury, the Sun, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, the fixed stars, and the firmament above, or the Primum Mobile—with those who are admitted to a progressively advancing state of glory and blessedness. All this, it should seem, is below the ascending circles of the Celestial Hierarchies, that immediate vestibule or fore-court of the Holy of Holies, the Heaven of Heavens, into which the most perfect of the Saints are admitted. They are commingled with, yet unabsorbed by, the Redeemer, in mystic union; yet the mysticism still reverently endeavours to maintain some distinction in regard to this Light, which, as it has descended upon earth, is drawn up again to the highest Heavens, and has a kind of communion with the yet Incommunicable Deity. That in all the Paradise of Dante there should be a dazzling sameness, a mystic indistinctness, an inseparable blending of the real and the unreal, is not wonderful, if we consider the nature of the subject, and the still more incoherent and incongruous popular conceptions which he had to represent and to harmonise. It is more wonderful that, with these few elements, Light, Music, and Mysticism, he should, by his singular talent of embodying the purely abstract and metaphysical thought in the liveliest imagery, represent such things with the most objective truth, yet without disturbing their fine spiritualism. The subtlest scholasticism is not more subtle than Dante. It is perhaps a bold assertion, but what is there on these transcendent subjects, in the vast theology of Aquinas, of which the essence and sum is not in the Paradise of Dante? Dante, perhaps, though expressing to a great extent the popular conception of

Heaven, is as much by his innate sublimity above it, as St. Thomas himself.⁷

⁷ Read the Anglo-Saxon description of Paradise, from the *De Phenice*, ascribed to Lactantius, in the Exeter book by Thorpe, p. 197.

I am disposed to cite a description of Paradise according to its ordinary conception, almost the only possible conception—life without any of its evils—from a Poet older than Chaucer :—

There is lyf withoute any deth,
And ther is youthe withoute any elde,
And ther is alle manner welth to welde
And ther is reste without any travaille—
And ther is pees without any strife,
And ther is alle mannere likynge of life—
And ther is bright somer ever to be
And ther is nevere wynter in that cuntree

And ther is more worshiþe and honour,
Than ever hadde kynge other emperour
And ther is greter melodee of aungeles
 songs,
And ther is preysing him amonge
And ther is alle maner friendshiþe that
 may be,
And ther is evere perfect love and charite;
And ther is wisdom without folye
And ther is honeste without vilenage.
All these a man may joyes of Hevene call,
As yatte the most sovereign joye of alle
Is the sight of Goddes bright face,
In whom restesth alle maners grace
Richard of Hampole, quoted from MSS. by
Turner, *Hist. of England*, v. 233.

This poem, the 'Picke of Conscience,' by Richard Rolle de Hainpote, has been printed (1863) by the Philological Society.

CHAPTER III.

Latin Letters.

LATIN CHRISTIANITY might seem to prolong, to perpetuate, the reign of Latin letters over the mind of man. Without Christianity, the language of Cicero, of Virgil, and of Tacitus, might have expired with the empire of Julius, of Augustus, and of Trajan. At the German invasion it must have broken up into barbarous and shifting dialects, as the world into barbarous and conflicting kingdoms. But as the language of religion, it continued to be the language of letters, for letters were almost entirely confined to those who alone could write books or read books, religious men. Through the clergy, the secretaries as it were of mankind, it was still the language of business, of law, of public affairs, of international treaties and private compacts, because it was the only common language, and because the ecclesiastics, the masters of that language, were from this and from causes already traced, the ministers of kings, the compilers of codes of law, mostly the notaries of all more important transactions. It only broke down gradually; it never, though defaced by barbarisms and foreign terms and forms of speech, Maintained by Christianity by changing grammar and by the introduction of new words, fell into desuetude. Even just before its abrogation, it revived in something approaching to purity, and resumed within its own, and that no narrow sphere, its old established authority. The period

at which Latin ceased to be the spoken language, at which the preacher addressed his flock, the magistrate the commonalty, the demagogue the populace, was of course different in different countries, especially in the Romance and Teutonic divisions of mankind. This may hereafter be the subject of very difficult, obscure, it must be feared, unsatisfactory inquiry.

But if Latin was the language of public affairs, it was even more exclusively so that of letters. Not only all theologians, for a time all poets (at least those whose poetry was written), still longer all historians, to the end all philosophers, wrote in Latin. Christian literature however arose, not only when Latin letters had passed their meridian, but after their short day of glory and strength had sunk into exhaustion. The universal empire of Rome had been fatal to her letters. Few, indeed, of her best early writers had been Roman by birth; but they were Italians, and submitted to the spell of Roman ascendancy. Even under the Emperors, Gaul and Spain began to furnish Latin poets and writers: for a short time Rome subdued them to the rules of her own grammar and the purer usages of her speech. But in the next century Latin letters, excepting only among the great jurisprudents, seem almost to have given place to Greek. They awoke again profoundly corrupt; the barbarising Augustan historians sink into the barbarous Ammianus Marcellinus. Africa becomes a prolific but dissonant school of heathen and of Christian writers; from some of the Panegyrist, who were Gallic rhetoricians, low enough in style, the fall is rapid and extreme to Hilary of Poitiers. Yet even in this respect Latin owes its vitality, and almost its Latinity, to Christian writers. Augustine and Jerome, though their Latin is very dif-

ferent from that of Livy or of Cicero, have a kind of dexterous management, a vigorous mastery, and a copiousness of language, unrivalled in their days. Sulpicius Severus surpasses in style any later historical work; Salvian is better than the Panegyrists. The Octavius of Minucius Felix has more of the older grace and correctness than any treatise of the day. Heathenism, or Indifferentism, strangely enough, kept up the Pagan supremacy in poetry alone; Claudian, and even the few lines of Merobaudes, stand higher in purity, as in the life, of poetry, than all the Christian hexametrist.

Latin letters, therefore, having become the absolute exclusive property of the clergy, theology, of course, took the first place, and almost absorbed into itself every other branch of literature. Oratory was that of the pulpit, philosophy was divinity in another form. Even poetry taught theology, or, at its highest, celebrated the holy exploits of hermits or monks, of saints and martyrs; and so it was through centuries, Theology once having assumed, held its unshaken supremacy over letters.

But at the time of Nicolas V. became manifest the great revolution within Latin Christianity itself, which was eventually to be fatal, at least to its universal dominion. The great system of scholastic Scholasticism. theology, the last development of that exclusive Hierarchical science, which had swallowed up all other sciences, of which philosophy was but a subject province, and dialectics an humble instrument, found itself, instead of the highest knowledge and the sole consummate dictatorial learning of the world, no more than the retired and self-exiled study of a still decreasing few, the professional occupation of a small

section of the reading and inquiring world. Its empire had visibly passed away—its authority was shaken. In its origin, in its objects, in its style, in its immeasurable dimensions, in its scholasticism in short, this all-ruling Theology had been monastic; it had grown up in cloisters and in schools. There, men of few wants, and those wants supplied by rich endowments, in the dignity which belonged to the acknowledged leading intellects of the age, could devote to such avocations their whole undisturbed, undivided lives—lives, at least, in which nothing interfered with the quiet, monotonous, undistracting religious services. But Theology, before it would give up its tenacious hold on letters, must become secular; it must emancipate itself from scholasticism, from monasticism. It was not till after that first revolution that the emancipation of letters from theology was to come.

Our history, before it closes, must survey the immense, and, notwithstanding its infinite variety and complexity of detail, the harmonious edifice of Latin theology.* We must behold its strife, at times successful, always obstinate, with philosophy—its active and skilful employment of the weapons of philosophy, of dialectics, against their master—its constant effort to be at once philosophy and theology; the irruption of

* That survey must of necessity be rapid, and, as rapid, imperfect, nor can I boast any extensive or profound acquaintance with these ponderous tomes. The two best guides which I have been able to find (both have read, studied, profited by their laborious predecessors) are Ritter, in the volumes of his *Christliche Philosophie*, which embrace this part of his history; and an excellent *Traité* by M. Haureau, de la Philosophie Scolastique. *Mémoire Couronné par l'Académie*, 2 tomes, Paris, 1850.

In England we have no guide. Dr. Hampden, who, from his article in the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana*, on Thomas Aquinas, promised to be the English historian of this remarkable chapter in the history of the human mind, has sunk into a quiet Bishop.

Aristotelism and of the Arabic philosophy, of which the Church did not at first apprehend all the perilous results, and in her pride supposed that she might bind them to her own service; the culmination of the whole system in the five great schoolmen, Albert the Great, Thomas Aquinas, Bonaventura, Duns Scotus, William of Ockham. All this scholasticism was purely Latin—no Teutonic element entered into the controversies of the philosophising theologians. In England, in Germany, the schools and the monasteries were Latin; the disputants spoke no other tongue. The theology which aspired to be philosophy would not condescend to, could not indeed as yet have found expression in, the undeveloped vulgar languages.^b

Our history has already touched on the remoter ancestors of the Scholastic theology, on the solitary Scotus Erigena, who stands as a lonely beacon in his dark and turbulent times, and left none, or but remote, followers. The philosophy of Erigena was what the empire of Charlemagne had been, a vast organisation, out of the wreck of which rose later schools. He was by anticipation or tradition (from him Berengar, as has been shown, drew his rationalising Eucharistic system), by his genius, by his Greek or Oriental acquirements, by his translation of the Pseudo-Dionysius, a Platonist, or more than a Platonist; at length by his own fearless fathoming onwards into unknown depths, a Pantheist. We have dwelt on Anselm, in our judgement the real parent of mediæval theology—of that theology, which at the same time that it lets loose the reason, reins it in with a strong hand; on the intellectual insurrection,

^b "Die Philosophie des Mittelalters gehört nicht der Zeiten an wo das Deutsche Element die Heimschaft hatte, sie ist vorhergehend Romanische Natur."
—Ritter p. 37.

too, under Abélard, and its suppression. Anselm's lofty enterprise, the reconciliation of divinity and philosophy, had been premature; it had ended in failure.^c Abélard had been compelled to submit his rebellious philosophy at the feet of authority. His fate for a time, to outward appearance at least, crushed the bold truths which lay hid in his system. Throughout the subsequent period theology and philosophy are contesting occasionally the bounds of their separate domains—bounds which it was impossible to mark with rigour and precision. Metaphysics soared into the realm of Theology; Theology when it came to Ontology, to reason on the being of God, could not but be metaphysical. At the same time, or only a few years later than Abélard, a writer, by some placed on a level, or even raised to superiority, as a philosophical thinker over Abélard, Gilbert de la Porée, through the abstruseness, perhaps obscurity of his teaching, the dignity of his position as Bishop, and his blameless character, was enabled to tread this border ground, if not without censure, without persecution.

But below that transcendental region, in which the mind treated of Being in the abstract, of the primary elements of thought, of the very first conception of God, Theology, in her proper sphere, would not endure the presence of her dangerous rival. Theology, rightly so called, professed to be primarily grounded on the Scriptures, but on the Scriptures interpreted, commented on, supplemented by a succession of writers (the Fathers), by decrees of Councils, and what was called the authority of the Church. The ecclesiastical

^c "L'entreprise de S. Anselme avait échoué; personne n'avait pu concilier la philosophie et la théologie."—Haureau, i. p. 318.

law had now taken the abbreviated form of a code, rather a manual, under Ivo of Chartres. So Theology was to be cast into short authoritative sentences, which might be at once the subject and the rule of controversy, the war-law of the schools. If Philosophy presumed to lay its profane hands on these subjects, it was warned off as trespassing on the manor of the Church. Logic might lend its humble ministrations to prove in syllogistic form those canonised truths; if it proceeded further, it became a perilous and proscribed weapon.

Peter the Lombard was, as it were, the Euclid of this science. His sentences were to be the irrefragable axioms and definitions from which were to be deduced all the higher and more remote truths of divinity; on them the great theological mathematicians built what appeared their infallible demonstrations.

Peter the Lombard was born near Novara, the native place of Lanfranc and of Anselm. He was Bishop of Paris in 1159. His famous book of the Sentences was intended to be, and became to a great extent, the Manual of the Schools. Peter knew not, or disdainfully threw aside, the philosophical cultivation of his day. He adhered rigidly to all which passed for Scripture, and was the authorised interpretation of the Scripture, to all which had become the creed in the traditions, and law in the decretals, of the Church. He seems to have no apprehension of doubt in his stern dogmatism; he will not recognise any of the difficulties suggested by philosophy; he cannot, or will not, perceive the weak points of his own system. He has the great merit that, opposed as he was to the prevailing Platonism, throughout the Sentences the ethical principle predominates; his excellence is perspicuity, simplicity, definiteness of moral purpose.

His distinctions are endless, subtle, idle ; but he wrote from conflicting authorities to reconcile writers at war with each other, at war with themselves. Their quarrels had been wrought to intentional or unintentional antagonism in the "Sic et Non" of Abelard. That philosopher, whether Pyrrhonist or more than Pyrrhonist, had left them in all the confusion of strife ; he had set Fathers against Fathers, each Father against himself, the Church against the Church, tradition against tradition, law against law. The Lombard announced himself and was accepted as the mediator, the final arbiter in this endless litigation ; he would sternly fix the positive, proscribe the negative or sceptical view, in all these questions. The litigation might still go on, but within the limits which he had rigidly established ; he had determined those ultimate results against which there was no appeal. The mode of proof might be interminably contested in the schools ; the conclusion was already irrefragably fixed. On the sacramental system Peter the Lombard is loftily, severely hierarchical. Yet he is moderate on the power of the keys : he holds only a declaratory power of binding and loosing—of showing how the souls of men were to be bound and loosed.^d

From the hard and arid system of Peter the Lombard the profound devotion of the Middle Ages took refuge in Mysticism. But it is an error to suppose Mysticism as the perpetual antagonist of Scholasticism ; the Mystics were often severe Logicians ; some Scholastics had all

^d "Non autem hoc sacerdotibus concessit, quibus tamen tribuit potestatem solvendi et ligandi, i.e. ostendendi homines ligatos vel solutos." Quoted by Ritter, p. 499. Ritter's account of the Lombard appears to me, as compared with the "Book of Sentences, so just and sagacious, that I have adopted implicitly his conclusions, to a certain extent his words.

the passion of Mystics. Nor were the Scholastics always Aristotelians and Nominalists, or the Mystics, Realists and Platonists. The logic was often that of Aristotle, the philosophy that of Plato. Hugo and Richard de St. Victor (the Abbey of St. Victor at Paris) were the great Mystics of this period. The mysticism of Hugo de St. Victor withdrew the contemplator altogether from the outward to the inner world—from God in the works of nature to God in his workings on the soul of man. This contemplation of God, the consummate perfection of man, is immediate, not mediate. Through the Angels and the Celestial Hierarchy of the Areopagite it aspires to one God, not in his Theophany, but in his inmost essence. All ideas and forms of things are latent in the human soul as in God, only they are manifested to the soul by its own activity, its meditative power. Yet St. Victor is not exempt from the grosser phraseology of the Mystic—the tasting God, and other degrading images from the senses of men. The ethical system of Hugo de St. Victor is that of the Church, more free and lofty than the dry and barren discipline of Peter Lombard: * it looks to the end and object, not merely to the punctilious performance of Church works. Richard de St. Victor was at once more logical and more devout, raising higher at once the unassisted power of man, yet with even more supernatural interference—less ecclesiastical, more religious.† Thus the silent, solemn Cloister was as it were constantly balancing the noisy and pugnacious School. The system of the St. Victors is the contem-

Hugo de
St. Victor.

Richard de
St. Victor.

* "Contemplatio est illa vivacitas p. 538.

intelligentiæ, quæ cuncta palam Patris manifestâ visione comprehendit."—M. In Eccles. i. p. 55, quoted by Rutter,

† Rutter has drawn the distinction between these two writers with great skill and nicety.

plative philosophy of deep-thinking minds in their profound seclusion, not of intellectual gladiators : it is that of men following out the train of their own thoughts, not perpetually crossed by the objections of subtle rival disputants. Its end is not victory, but the inward satisfaction of the soul. It is not so much conscious of ecclesiastical restraint, it is rather self-restrained by its inborn reverence ; it has no doubt, therefore no fear ; it is bold from the inward consciousness of its orthodoxy.

John of Salisbury, though he professed to be of the school of the St. Victor, had something of the practical English character. He was far less of a Monk, more of an observant man of the world. The Mystic was lost in the high Churchman. He was the right hand and counsellor of Becket, though, like Becket, he says hard things of the Pope and of Rome ; he was the inflexible asserter of the rights of the Church. John has the fullest faith in the theological articles of the Church, with some academic scepticism on the philosophic questions. John was neither of the cloister nor of the school : he has something of the statesman, even something of the natural philosopher

John of
Salisbury.

Scholastic philosophy has no great name during the last quarter of the twelfth to the middle of the thirteenth century. But during this barren and mute period came gradually and silently stealing in, from an unobserved unsuspected quarter, new views of knowledge, new metaphysical modes of thought, which went up into the primal principles of theology ; dialectic processes, if not new, more perfect. Greek books, as yet unknown, are now in the hands of the studious ; works of Aristotle, either entirely lost for centuries, or imperfectly known in the abstracts of Augustine, of Boethius, and Martianus Capella. It was from the Arabic language, from

the godless and accursed Mohammedans, that Christendom received these inauspicious gifts.

This Mohammedan, or Græco-Mohammedan philosophy, was as far removed from the old stern inflexible Unitarianism of the Korân as the Korân from the Gospel. Philosophy was in truth more implacably oppugnant, a more flagrant heresy to Islam than to mediæval Christianity. Islam, like Christianity, the Latin hierarchical Christianity, had its Motakhelim, its high churchmen; its Sufis, its mystic monks; its Maatizali, its heretics or dissidents: its philosophers, properly so called, its Aristotelians. But the philosophic schools of Islam were as much or more foreign to the general Mohammedan mind than the scholastic oligarchy of Christendom to that of Western Europe. In the general estimation they were half or more than half heretical, the intellectual luxuries of splendid Courts and Caliphs, who were, at least, no longer rigid Islamists.^g It was not, as in Europe, the philosophy of a great hierarchy.

Of all curious chapters in the history of the human mind, none is more singular than the growth, Arabic
Philosophy. progress, and influence of the Arabo-Aristotelian philosophy.^h Even in the second century after the Hegira, or more fully in the third, this science found its way among the Mohammedans of Syria. After having made its circuit, five or six centuries later it came out again in Spain, and from the schools of Cordova entered

^g Mahomet is made to prophesy in as stern language as the fiercest Catholic. "Mon eglise sera divisée en plus de soixante-dix sectes: il n'y a qu'une qui sera sauvée, les autres iront à l'enfer; or ce qu'il a prédit, est arrivé"—Schmolders, p. 89.

^h "On ne pourra parler d'une philo-

sophie Arabe dans le sens strict du mot. On n'entend dire autre chose que la Philosophie Grecque, telle que les Arabes la cultivaient."—Schmolders, *Essai sur les Ecoles Philosophiques des Arabes*, p. 41.

Again,

"Græcia capta ferum victorem cepit.

into the Universities of France and Italy. In both cases it was under the same escort, that of medicine, that it subjugated in turn Islam and Christianity. Physicians were its teachers in Damascus and Bagdad, in Paris and Auxerre.

The Arabians in their own country, in their free wild life, breathing the desert air, ever on horseback, had few diseases or only diseases peculiar to their habits. With the luxuries, the repose, the indolence, the residence in great cities, the richer diet of civilisation, they could not avoid the maladies of civilisation. They were obliged to call in native science to their aid. As in their buildings, their coinage, and most handicraft works, they employed Greek or Syrian art, so medicine was introduced and cultivated among them by Syrians, Greeks, and Jews. They received those useful strangers not only with tolerant respect, but with high and grateful honour. The strangers brought with them not only their medical treatises, the works of Hippocrates and Galen, and besides these the Alexandrian astronomy, which developed itself in the general Asiatic mind into astrology; but at length also and by degrees the whole Greek philosophy, the Neo-Platonism of Alexandria and the Aristotelian dialectics of Greece. The asserters of the one Book, the destroyers as they are said to have been of all books but that one, became authors so prolific, not in poetry alone, their old pride and delight, but in the infinite variety and enormous mass of their philosophic treatises,

„Diese Ansicht der Dinge welche das Geschehen auf der Erde mit den Bewegungen des Himmels in einen physischen Zusammenhang bringt, ist ein charakteristisches Zug welche durch alle Lehre der Arabischen Aristotelischer hindurch geht. Wenn auch schon vor ihnen Astrologische Lehren auf der

Philosophie einen Einfluss geübt hatten, so bildeten doch sie zuerst die Astrologie zu einem philosophischen Systeme aus.“ Ritter, viii. p. 161. The Astrology of the Middle Ages no doubt owes much to and is a sign of the prevalence of the Arabic philosophy.

as to equal if not surpass the vast and almost incalculable volumes of Scholastic divinity.¹

As in Syria of old, so now in France and other parts of Christendom, Philosophy stole in under the protection of medicine. It was as physicians that the famous Arabian philosophers, as well as some Jews, acquired unsuspected fame and authority. There is not a philosopher who has not some connexion with medicine, nor a physician who has not some connexion with philosophy. The translators of the most famous philosophers, of Averrhoes and Avicenna, were physicians; metaphysics only followed in the train of physical science.^m

The Græco-Arabic philosophy worked into the system of the schools in two different modes :—I. The introduction of works of Aristotle, either unknown or now communicated in a more perfect form. II. The Arabic philosophy, which had now grown to its height under the Abbasside Caliphs in the East, Almanzor, Haroun al Raschid, Motakem,ⁿ and under the Ommiades in Spain. The Eastern school, after Alghazil and Fakhreddin Rhazis, had culminated in Avicenna, the Western in Averrhoes. Schools had arisen in Cordova, Seville, Toledo, Grenada, Xativa, Valencia, Murcia, Almeria. Averrhoes had an endless race of successors.

Profound, it might seem almost impenetrable darkness, covered the slow, silent interpenetration of both these influences into the Christian schools. How, through what channels, did Aristotle rise to his

Aristotelian
Philosophy.

* "La masse des pretendus Philosophes est si grande, leurs ouvrages sont numériquement si prodigieux, que toute la Scholastique est bien pauvre en comparaison des Arabes."—Schmolders. Has this learned author calculated or

weighed the volumes of the Schoolmen?

^m Ritter, p. 676.

ⁿ The Nestorian Churches in Persia and Khorasan were instrumental to the progress of philosophising Islamism.

ascendancy? to what extent were the Schoolmen acquainted with the works of the Arabian philosophers? The first at least of these questions has found a satisfactory solution.* During all the earlier period, from Anselm and Abélard to the time of Albert the Great, from the eleventh to the thirteenth century, the name of Aristotle was great and authoritative in the West, but it was only as the teacher of logic, as the master of Dialectics. Even this logic, which may be traced in the darkest times, was chiefly known in a secondary form, through Augustine, Boethius,^p and the *Isagoge* of Porphyry; at the utmost, the *Treatises* which form the *Organon*, and not the whole of these, were known in the Church. It was as dangerously proficient in the Aristotelian logic, as daring to submit theology to the rules of Dialectics, that Abélard excited the jealous apprehensions of St. Bernard.^q Throughout the intermediate period, to Gilbert de la Porée, to the St. Victors, to John of Salisbury, to Alain de Lille, to Adelard of Bath, Aristotle was the logician and no more.^r Of his

* This question has been, if I may so say, judiciously determined by M Jourdain, *Recherches Critiques sur l'Age et l'Origine des Traductions Latines d'Aristote*, new edition, revised by his son, Paris, 1843. These are the general conclusions of M. Jourdain: I. That the only works of Aristotle known in the West until the twelfth century were the *Treatises on Logic*, which compose the *Organon*. (The *Analytics*, *Topics*, and *Sophistic Refutations* are more rarely cited.) II. That from the date of the following century, the other parts of his philosophy were translated into Latin. III. That of those Translations some were from a Greek, some from an

Arabic text. M. Jourdain fairly examines and states the names of former writers on the subject,—Brucke, Tiedemann, Buhle, Tenneman, Heeren.

^p On the books translated by Boethius and the earlier Translations, Jourdain, pp 30, 52, &c.

^q See vol. iii. B. viii. c 5. Compare Jourdain, p. 24. Abélard confesses his ignorance of the *Physics* and *Metaphysics* “*Quæ quidem opera ipsius nullus adhuc translata lingue Latinæ aptavit. ideoque minus natura eorum nobis est cognita.*”—Abelard. *Oper. Ined.* p 200.

^r The name of Aristotle is not to be found in Peter the Lombard.—Jourdain, 29.

Morals, his ^{Metaphysics} ~~Metaphysics~~, his Physics, his Natural History, there is no knowledge whatever. His fame as a great, universal philosopher hardly lived, or lived only in obscure and doubtful tradition.

On a sudden, at the beginning of the thirteenth century, there is a cry of terror from the Church, in the centre of the most profound theological learning of the Church, the University of Paris, and the cry is the irrefragable witness to the influence of what was vaguely denounced as the philosophy of Aristotle. It is not now presumptuous Dialectics, which would submit theological truth to logical system, but philosophical theories, directly opposed to the doctrines of the Church; the clamour is loud against certain fatal books^a but newly brought into the schools.^b Simon of Tournay,^c accused of utter infidelity, may have employed the perilous weapons of Dialectics to perplex his hearers and confute his adversaries; but he was also arraigned as having been led into his presumptuous tenets by the study of the Physics and Metaphysics of Aristotle. The heresies of Amaury de Bene, and of David of Dinant, were traced by the theologians of Paris to the same fertile source

^a These books are said by the continuator of Rigord, William the Breton, to have contained the Metaphysics of Aristotle; and in two other writers of the period, in Casai of Heisterbach, and Hugh the Continuator of the Chronicle of Auxerre, to have been the Physics. The Decree for burning the books (see below) determines the point

^b Crevier, t. i. p. 338, or rather Du Boulay, asserted that "these books had been brought from Constantinople about 1167, and translated into Latin. M Jourdain, Note p. 46, has shown

the inaccuracy of this statement.

^c Simon of Tournay delivered with wonderful applause a Lecture, in which he explained or proved all the great Mysteries of religion by the Aristotelic process. "Stay," he closed his Lecture. "to-morrow I will utterly confute all that I have proved to-day by stronger arguments." He was struck on that morrow with apoplexy, and lost his speech—Crevier, t. p. 309. It should seem that Simon de Tournay was rather an expert dialectician than an inquiring philosopher.

of evil. An exhumation of the remains of Amaury de Bene, who, though suspected, had been buried in consecrated ground, was followed by a condemnation of his followers, the teachers of these dreaded opinions. Some were degraded and made over to the secular arm (to the State), some to perpetual imprisonment. There was a solemn prohibition against the reading and copying of these books; all the books which could be seized were burned.⁶ Six years after, Robert de Courçon, the Papal Legate, interdicted the reading of the Physics and Metaphysics of Aristotle in the schools of Paris.⁷ A milder decree of Gregory IX. ordered that they should not be used till they had been corrected by the theologians of the Church; yet two years before this Gregory had fulminated a violent Bull against the presumption of those who taught the Christian doctrine rather according to the rules of Aristotle than the traditions of the Fathers,⁸ against the profane usage of mingling up philosophy with Divine revelation. But the secret of all this terror and perplexity of the Church was not that the pure and more rational philosophy of Aristotle was revealed in the schools; the evil and the danger more clearly denounced were in the Arabian Comment, which, inseparable from

⁶ All kinds of incongruous charges were heaped on the memory of Amaury de Bene: he was an Albigenian, believed in the Everlasting Gospel

⁷ See the Decree of the Archbishop of Sens and the Council, unknown to Launois and earlier authors, Martene, Nov. Thes. Anec. iv. 166. "Corpus Magistri Amaurici extrahatur a cimiterio et projiciatur in terram non benedictam et idem excommunicetur per omnes ecclesias totius provincie." A list of names follows, "qui degradentur, |

penitus seculari curæ relinquendi;" another list, "perpetuo carceri mancipandi." The Books of David de Dinant are to be burned, "nec libri Aristotelis de Naturali Philosophia, nec *Commenta* legantur Parisiis publice vel secreto."

⁸ "Non legantur libri Aristotelis de Metaphysicâ et Naturali Philosophiâ, nec summa de eisdem, aut de doctrinâ Mag. David de Dinant, aut Almerici heretici, aut Mauriti Hispani."—Stat. Univ. Par.

the Arabo-Latin translation, had formed a system fruitful of abuse and error.^a

The heresy of Amaury de Bene, and that of David de Dinant, was Pantheism.^b The Creator and the Creation were but one; all flowed from God, all was to be reabsorbed in God—a doctrine not less irreconcilable with genuine Aristotelism than with the doctrine of the Church.^c But the greater Schoolmen of the next period aspired, with what success it may be doubted, to the nobler triumph of subjugating Aristotelism to the science of Theology, not the logical science only, but the whole range of the Stagirite's philosophy.^d It was to be an obsequious and humble, though honoured ally, not a daring rival; they would set free, yet at the same time bind its stubborn spirit in their firm grasp, to more than amity, to perfect harmony.

Albert the Great, in his unbounded range of knowledge, comprehends the whole metaphysical, moral, physical, as well as logical system of Aristotle.^e He had read all, or, with but few unimportant exceptions, his whole works. He had read them in Latin, some translated directly from the Greek, some from the Arabic; some few had been translated from the Arabic into Hebrew, and from the Hebrew into the Latin. Those which came through the Arabic retain distinct

^a "On voit dans ces trois condamnations une diminution successive de sévérité. La première est la plus rigoureuse, les autres s'en vont s'adoucissant." Crevier blames this mildness, p. 312.

^b "Roger Bacon nous apprend que l'on s'opposait long temps à Paris à la philosophie naturelle et à la métaphysique d'Aristote exposées par Avicenne et Averroès; ceux qui s'en ser-

vaient furent excommuniés."—P. 194. See the following quotation from Roger Bacon, and the whole passage.

^c See the sources of their doctrines, Jourdain, p. 196

^d See in Jourdain the works cited by William Bishop of Paris, who died 1248 —P. 31.

^e Works quoted by Albert the Great also, p. 32.

and undeniable marks of their transmission — Arabic words, especially words untranslated, Arabic idioms, and undeniable vestiges of the Arabic vowel system.^f These versions from the Arabic came: I. From Spain and from Spanish scholars in the South of France, at Marseilles, Montpellier, Toulouse. II. From Sicily, where Frederic II. had fostered Arabic learning, and had encouraged translations from that tongue. Under his auspices the famous Michael Scott had translated, at least, the books of Natural History.^g Besides these some had come through the Hebrew; the great age of Jewish philosophy, that of Aben-Esra, Maimonides, and Kimchi, had been contemporaneous with the later Spanish school of Arabic philosophy. There had been an intercommunion or rivalry in the cultivation of the whole range of philosophy. The translations from the Greek were as yet few, imperfect, inaccurate.^h The greater Thomas Aquinas has the merit of having encouraged and obtained a complete translation of the works of Aristotle directly from the Greek.ⁱ The culti-

^f "Jamais une version dérivée d'un texte Arabe ne présenta, fidèlement orthographe, un mot qui aura passé par l'intermédiaire de l'Arabe, langue où la prononciation n'est réglée que par les points diacritiques qui sont rarement bien placés. Souvent aussi les traducteurs ne connaissant pas la valeur d'un terme l'ont laissé en Arabe." — Jourdain, p. 19. See the whole passage, and also p. 37.

^g On the translation by M. Scott, from the Arabic, not through the Hebrew, Jourdain, p. 124, *et seqq.*, and Herman Alemannus, with whom the older Herman Contractus (the Lame) has been confounded. — Jourdain, p. 93.

^h Among the earliest Translations from the Greek was the Nicomachean Ethics, by no less a man than Robert Grosstête, Bishop of Lincoln. M. Jourdain satisfactorily proves this remarkable fact. — P. 59, *et seqq.*

ⁱ "Scipsit etiam super philosophiam naturalem et moralem et super metaphysicam, quorum librorum procuravit ut fieret nova translatio quæ sententiæ Aristotelis contineret clarius veritatem." — Tocco. Vit. C. Th. Aquin. Act. SS. Maich. "On sait que ce fut par les conseils et les soins de S. Thomas d'Aquin que fut faite une traduction Latine d'Aristote." — Tenneman, Manuel, French Translation.

vation of Greek had never entirely ceased in the West. After Scotus Erigena and Adelard of Bath travelled in the East, these casual and interrupted communications grew into more regular and constant intercourse. But now the Latin conquest of Constantinople had made Eastern and Western Christendom one. If the conquering army, the sovereign and the territorial lords, did not condescend to acquire much of the language of their subjects, the conquering Church was more wise and enterprising. Innocent III. proposed to the University of Paris to send a colony of scholars to learn the tongue of the people, among whom the Latin clergy was to administer the rites of the Church ;^k a school for youths from Constantinople was to be opened at Paris.^m No doubt many Byzantine exiles, men of peace and learning, found their way to the West. The Mendicant Orders, spreading over the world, made it their duty and their boast to acquire foreign tongues ; and now especially the Dominicans aspired to the highest places in learning and knowledge. Thus the complete and genuine Aristotle was divulged. Towards the end of the thirteenth century the philosophers of Greece and Rome were as well known, as in our own days ; the schools rung with their names," with the explanation of their writings. A scholastic Doctor was not thought worthy of his name who had not publicly commented on their writings.^o It was not alone as a servile translator of the Greek, as the inert and uninventive disciple of the Western philosophy, which it

Arabian
philosophy.

^k Epistolæ Innocent. III. Broquigny et Du Theil, ii. 712, 723.

^m Buleus, iii. iv.

^o The earlier Western students, who travelled before the twelfth century,

Constantine the Monk, the famous Gerbert, Adelard of Bath, sought rather mathematical or astronomical

ⁿ Jourdain, p. 2.

was to restore to its forgotten honours in the West, that Arabian Philosophy aspired, if not to rule, to influence the mind of Christendom.^p The four great Arabic authors, Avicenna, Aven Pace, Avicbron, Averrhoes, with David the Jew, and others of less fame,^q introduced chiefly perhaps through the Jews of Andalusia, Marseilles, and Montpellier (those Dragomen of Mediæval Science), are not only known to the later Schoolmen; but even the suspicion, the jealousy, the awe, has fallen away. They are treated with courtesy and respect, allowed fair hearing; that which at the beginning of the century appeared so perilous, so formidable, is no longer the forbidden lore of heretics, of unbelievers, of atheists. The Arabians are entertained as grave philosophers; their theories are examined, their arguments discussed. Their authority, as representatives of a lofty and commanding philosophy, which has a right to respectful attention, is fully acknowledged.^r Avicenna and Averrhoes are placed by Dante among the philosophers who wanted only baptism to be saved; and

^p See Jourdain on the Translations from the Arabic, by Dominic and John the Jew, in the twelfth century.

^q "Ajoutons que les philosophes Arabes, Avicenne, Averroes, Aven Pace, etc., oubliés maintenant, jouissaient alors d'une grande réputation." —*Ibid* Avicbron turns out to be the famous Hebrew poet, Solomon Ibn Gebirol. See the abstract and extracts from his 'Fons Vitæ,' in Munk, *Mélanges de Philosophie Juive et Arabe*. Paris, 1859. There is much on Arabian philosophy of great value in this work, and other writings of M. Munk. On Averrhoes, see the masterly treatise of Einest

Renan — *Averroes et l'Averroïsme*. Paris, 1861.

^r M. Schmolders is of opinion that the Schoolmen were much more indebted to the Græco-Arabic philosophy than is generally supposed. "L'influence exercée par eux sur le Scolastique est beaucoup plus grande qu'on ne la suppose ordinairement. Non seulement les Scolastiques semblent en convenir eux-mêmes à cause de leurs nombreuses citations, mais il n'est pas difficile de prouver qu'ils sont redevables aux Arabes d'une foule d'idées, qu'on leur a jusqu'à présent attribuées."—P. 104.

Dante no doubt learned his respect for their names from his master S. Thomas.*

The extent to which Latin Christianity, in its highest scholasticism, admitted, either avowedly or tacitly, consciously or imperceptibly, the influence of the philosophy of Bagdad or Cordova, how far reached this fusion of refined Islamism and Christianity, our History wants space, the Historian knowledge of the yet unfathomed depths of Arabian learning, to determine.†

Now came the great age of the Schoolmen. Latin Christianity raised up those vast monuments of ^{Great era} ^{of Scholas-} ^{ticism.} Theology which amaze and appal the mind with the enormous accumulation of intellectual industry, ingenuity, and toil;‡ but of which the sole result to posterity is this barren amazement. The tomes of Scholastic Divinity may be compared with the pyramids of Egypt, which stand in that rude majesty, which is commanding from the display of immense human power, yet oppressive from the sense of the waste of that power for no discoverable use. Whoever penetrates within, finds himself bewildered and lost in a labyrinth

* Inferno, iv. This shows at once their fame, and that Arabic philosophers were not popularly rejected as impious and godless.

† I almost presume, as far as my own reading extends, to doubt whether there are sufficient grounds as yet for deciding this question. It requires a profound knowledge of Oriental and of Mediæval lore in one person. M. Schmolders possesses the first, M. Rutter perhaps a large proportion of both. M. Haureau, the great Master of Scholasticism, rather declines, at least does not fully enter into, the discussion.

‡ The study of Arabic, which had been fostered by Frederick II., carried to high perfection by Michael Scott and others, was not discouraged in the Universities. Honorius IV. proposed an endowment for this study in the University of Paris. The ostensible object was the education of Missionaries to propagate the Gospel among the Islamites. The foundation did not take place till the Council of Vienne. —Crevier, ii. 112. At an early period, perhaps, it might rather have promoted the invasion of Christianity by the Arabic philosophy.

of small, dark, intricate passages and chambers, devoid of grandeur, devoid of solemnity : he may wander without end, and find nothing ! It was not indeed the enforced labour of a slave population : it was rather voluntary slavery, submitting in its intellectual ambition and its religious patience to monastic discipline : it was the work of a small intellectual oligarchy, monks, of necessity, in mind and habits ; for it imperiously required absolute seclusion either in the monastery or in the University, a long life under monastic rule. No Schoolman could be a great man but as a Schoolman. William of Ockham alone was a powerful demagogue—scholastic even in his political writings, but still a demagogue. It is singular to see every kingdom in Latin Christendom, every Order in the social State, furnishing the great men, not merely to the successive lines of Doctors, who assumed the splendid titles of the Angelical, the Seraphic, the Irrefragable, the most Profound, the most Subtle, the Invincible, even the Perspicuous,* but to what may be called the supreme Pentarchy of Scholasticism. Italy sent Thomas of Aquino and Bonaventura ; Germany Albert the Great ; Five Great Schoolmen. the British Isles (they boasted also of Alexander Hales and Bradwardine) Duns Scotus and William of Ockham ; France alone must content herself with names somewhat inferior (she had already given Abélard, Gilbert de la Porée, Amaury de Bene, and other famous or suspected names), now William of Auvergne, at a later time Durandus. Albert and Aquinas were of noble Houses, the Counts of Bollstadt and Aquino ; Bonaventura of good parentage at Fidenza ; of Scotus

* Aquinas, Bonaventura, Alexander Hales, Ægidius de Colonna, Ockham, Walter Burley.

the birth was so obscure as to be untraceable. Ockham was of humble parents in the village of that name in Surrey. But France may boast that the University of Paris was the great scene of their studies, their labours their instruction. The University of Paris was the acknowledged awarder of the fame and authority obtained by the highest Schoolmen. It is no less remarkable that the new Mendicant Orders sent forth these five Patriarchs, in dignity, of the science. Albert and Aquinas were Dominicans, Bonaventura, Duns Scotus, Ockham, Franciscans. It might have been supposed that the popularising of religious teaching, which was the express and avowed object of the Friar Preachers and of the Minorites, would have left the higher places of abstruse and learned Theology to the older Orders, or to the more dignified Secular Ecclesiastics. Content with being the vigorous antagonists of heresy in all quarters, they would not aspire also to become the aristocracy of theologic erudition. But the dominant religious impulse of the times could not but seize on all the fervent and powerful minds which sought satisfaction for their devout yearnings. No one who had strong religious ambition could be anything but a Dominican or a Franciscan; to be less was to be below the highest standard. Hence on one hand the Orders aspired to rule the Universities, contested the supremacy with all the great established authorities in the schools; and having already drawn into their vortex almost all who united powerful abilities with a devotional temperament, never wanted men who could enter into this dreary but highly rewarding service,—men who could rule the Schools, as others of their brethren had begun to rule the Councils and the minds of Kings. It may be strange to contrast the popular simple preaching

for such must have been that of S. Dominic and S. Francis, such that of their followers, in order to contend with success against the plain and austere Sermons of the heretics, with the Sum of Theology of Aquinas, which of itself (and it is but one volume in the works of Thomas) would, as it might seem, occupy a whole life of the most secluded study to write, almost to read. The unlearned, unreasoning, only profoundly, passionately loving and dreaming S. Francis, is still more oppugnant to the intensely subtle and dry Duns Scotus, at one time carried by his severe logic into Pelagianism; or to William of Ockham, perhaps the hardest and severest intellectualist of all; a political fanatic, not like his visionary brethren, who brooded over the Apocalypse and their own prophets, but for the Imperial against the Papal Sovereignty.

As then in these five men culminates the age of genuine Scholasticism, the rest may be left to be designated and described to posterity by the names assigned to them by their own wondering disciples.

We would change, according to our notion, the titles which discriminated this distinguished pentarchy. Albert the Great would be the Philosopher, Aquinas the Theologian, Bonaventura the Mystic, Duns Scotus the Dialectician, Ockham the Politician. It may be said of Scholasticism, as a whole, that whoever takes delight in what may be called gymnastic exercises of the reason or the reasoning powers, efforts which never had, and hardly cared to have, any bearing on the life, or even on the sentiments and opinions of mankind, may study these works, the crowning effort of Latin, of Sacerdotal, and Monastic Christianity, and may acquire something like respect for these forgotten athletea in the intellectual games of antiquity. They are not of so

much moment in the history of religion, for their theology was long before rooted in the veneration and awe of Christendom; nor in that of philosophy, for except as to what may be called mythological subtleties, questions relating to the world of angels and spirits, of which, according to them, we might suppose the revelation to man as full and perfect, as that of God or of the Redeemer, there is hardly a question which has not been examined in other language and in less dry and syllogistic form. There is no acute observation on the workings of the human mind, no bringing to bear extraordinary facts on the mental, or mingled mental and corporeal, constitution of our being. With all their researches into the unfathomable they have fathomed nothing: with all their vast logical apparatus they have proved nothing to the satisfaction of the inquisitive mind. Not only have they not solved any of the insoluble problems of our mental being, our primary conceptions, our relations to God, to the Infinite, neither have they (a more possible task) shown them to be insoluble.⁷

Albert the Great was born at Lauingen in Swabia, of the ancient house of the Counts of Bollstadt. He studied at Paris and in Padua. In Padua, Jordan the Saxon, the head of the Dominicans, laid on him the spell of his own master-mind and that of his Order; he became a Dominican. He returned to Cologne, and taught in the schools of that city. In 1228 he was called to fill the chair of his

Albert the
Great
A.D. 1193.

1211.

⁷ "Il est donc bien difficile aux philosophes d'avouer que la philosophie consiste plutôt à reconnaître la limite naturelle de l'intelligence humaine qu'à faire de puerils efforts pour franchir cette limite."—Haureau, *ii.* p. 45, quoting Locke, whose whole, wise, but strangely misrepresented, work is a comment on that great axiom.

Order in the Jacobin convent at Paris. There, though his text-book was the rigid, stone-cold Sentences of Peter the Lombard, his bold originality, the confidence with which he rushed on ground yet untrodden, at once threw back all his competitors into obscurity, and seemed to summon reason, it might be to the aid, it might be as a perilous rival to religion. This, by his admirers, was held as hardly less than divine inspiration, but provoked his adversaries and his enemies. "God," it was said, "had never divulged so many of his secrets to one of his creatures." Others murmured, "He must be possessed by an evil spirit:" already the fame, the suspicion of a magician had begun to gather round his name. After three years of glory, perhaps of some danger, in Paris, he settled among his Dominican brethren at Cologne. At Cologne he was visited by the Emperor William of Holland, who bowed down in wonder before the extraordinary man. As Provincial of Germany, commissioned by the Diet of Worms, he visited all the monasteries of his jurisdiction. He severely reproved the Monks, almost universally sunk in ignorance and idleness; he rescued many precious manuscripts which in their ignorance they had left buried in dust, or in their fanaticism cast aside as profane. He was summoned to Rome, and named 1260.
Grand Master of the Palace—the great dignity 1263.
usually held by his Order—by Pope Alexander IV. He laid down his dignity, and retired to his school at Cologne. He was compelled to accept the Bishopric of Ratisbon. After three years of able administration he resigned to Urban IV. the unwelcome great- Died in 1280.
ness, and again retired to his seclusion, his studies, and public instruction at Cologne. Such was

the public life, such the honours paid to the most illustrious of the Schoolmen.*

Albert the Great at once awed by his immense erudition and appalled his age. His name, the Universal Doctor, was the homage to his all-embracing knowledge. He quotes, as equally familiar, Latin, Greek, Arabic, Jewish philosophers.^a He was the first Schoolman who lectured on Aristotle himself, on Aristotle from Græco-Latin or Arabo-Latin copies. The whole range of the Stagirite's physical and metaphysical philosophy was within the scope of Albert's teaching.^b In later days he was called the Ape of Aristotle; he had dared to introduce Aristotle into the Sanctuary itself.^c One of his Treatises is a refutation of the Arabian Averrhoes. Nor is it Aristotle and Averrhoes alone that come within

* Haureau, t. II p. 1, *et seqq* I owe most of what follows, with references to the original works, to the two Chapters on Albert the Great in Ritter, *Christliche Philosophie*, VIII. p. 181, and M. Haureau, *De la Philosophie Scolastique*, II. p. 1. I think the German has an unusual advantage over the Frenchman in the order, and therefore in the perspicuity, with which he has developed the system of Albert the Great. In his sharp, precise language the Frenchman resumes his superiority; and it must be remembered that the object of M. Haureau's work is the Scholastic Philosophy. I have also read M. Rousselot, *Études*, and some of the older writers.

* "Et in hanc sententiam conveniunt multi Theologi diversarum religionum tam scilicet Saracenorum quam Judæorum, quam Christianorum."—*Lib. viii. Physic. c. vi.*, quoted by

M. Haureau, II. p. 54. Alexander Hales (about 1222) had illustrated Christian Theology from Aristotle and Avicenna.—Ritter, 181. Also William of Auvergne. See Haureau, p. 11.

^b The only Treatises which the Scholastic Philosopher might seem to disdain were the popular and practical ones, the Rhetoric, Poetics, and the Politics.—Ritter, p. 188.

^c See quotation from Thomasius in Haureau, and M. Haureau's refutation "An andern Orten giebt er zu erkennen, er wollte hier nur die Meinung der Peripatetiker wiedergeben; wie dieselbe mit der Katholischen Lehre ausgeglichen werden könne, lässt er dahin gestellt seyn." Ritter, however, does full justice to his religion, p. 191. *De unitate intellectus contra Averrhoem*. His works fill twenty-one volumes folio.

the 'pale of Albert's erudition; the commentators' and glossators of Aristotle, the whole circle of the Arabians, are quoted, their opinions, their reasonings, even their words, with the utmost familiarity. But with Albert Theology was still the master-science. The Bishop of Ratisbon was of unimpeached orthodoxy; the vulgar only, in his wonderful knowledge of the secrets of Nature, in his studies of Natural History, could not but see something of the magician. Albert had the ambition of reconciling Plato and Aristotle, and of reconciling this harmonised Aristotelian and Platonic philosophy with Christian Divinity. He thus, in some degree, misrepresented or misconceived both the Greeks; he hardened Plato into Aristotelism, expanded Aristotelism into Platonism; and his Christianity, though Albert was a devout man, while it constantly subordinates, in strong and fervent language, knowledge to faith and love, became less a religion than a philosophy. Albert has little of, he might seem to soar above the peculiar and dominant doctrines of Christianity; he dwells on the nature of God rather than on the Trinity, on the immortality of the soul rather than the redemption; on sin, on original sin, he is almost silent. According to the established Christian theology, Creation and Redemption were simultaneously in the counsels of God. In the new system, Grace was a gift for the advancement of Man's indefeasible intellectual nature. But though Albert thus dwells on the high, as it were philosophic, Godhead, he reserves religiously for God a sole primary existence; he rejects with indignation his master Aristotle's tenet of the co-eternity of matter and the eternity of the world;⁴ but he rests not in the

⁴ "Gott wurde bedürftig sein, wenn setze. . . . Dass die Materie nicht sein Werken eine Materie voraus- ewig sein könne, wird aber auch

sublime simplicity of the Mosaic creation by the Word of God out of nothing. Since St. Augustine, the Platonic doctrine of the pre-existence of the forms, or the ideas, of all things in the mind of God, had been almost the accredited doctrine of the Church. Even Matter was in God, but before it became material, only in its form and possibility. Man, indeed, seems to be doomed, if he can soar above the corporeal anthropomorphism which arrayed the Deity in human form (the anthropomorphism of the poets, the sculptors, and the painters), to admit an intellectual anthropomorphism; to endeavour to comprehend and define the laws and the capacities of the Divine Intelligence according to his own.* Yet when Albert thus accepted a kind of Platonic emanation theory of all things from the Godhead,¹ he repudiated as detestable, as blasphemous, the absolute unity of the Divine Intelligence with the intelligence of man. This doctrine of Averrhoes destroyed the personality of man, if not of God. He recoils from Pantheism with religious horror. His perpetual object

daraus erschlossen, dass Gott, die ewige Form, und die Materie nicht mit einander gemein haben konnten, also auch nicht die Ewigkeit. Hier gebraucht Albert diesen Satz des Aristoteles gegen den Aristoteles selbst"—Ritter, pp. 201-2

* "Le Dieu des philosophes, c'est à dire des Theologiens eclaires, ne fut pas, il est vrai, celui des sculpteurs et des peintres; mais il eut bien avec lui, pour ne rien celer, quelques traits de ressemblance. Pour représenter la figure de Dieu, l'artiste avait choisi dans la nature, avec les yeux du corps, les formes qui lui avaient semblé répondre le mieux au concept idéal de la

beauté parfaite, et il s'était efforcé de les reproduire sur le bois ou sur la pierre. Pour représenter Dieu comme l'intelligence parfaite, le philosophe procéda suivant la même méthode; arrivant au dernier terme de l'abstraction, il trouva dans l'entendement humain, les idées générales, et il ne sut alors mieux faire, que de définir l'intelligence de Dieu le lieu primordial de ces idées"—Haureau, p. 84. Compare the whole passage, as just as it is brilliant.

† "Primum principium est indefinenter fluens, quo intellectus universaliter agens indefinenter est intelligentias emittens"—Apud Ritter, p. 199

is to draw the distinction between the Eternal and the Temporal, the Infinite and the Finite; how knowledge is attained, how the knowledge of God differs from the enthusiastic contemplation of God. God, though not to be comprehended, may be known, and that not only by grace, but by natural means. God is as the Light, everywhere seen, but everywhere escaping the comprehension of the vision. God is omnipresent, all-working yet limited by the capacities of existing things.

God the Creator (and Creation was an eternal, inalienable attribute of the God) was conceived, as having primarily called into being four coeval things of everlasting duration,—the primal Matter, Time, Heaven, the Everlasting Intelligence.⁸ But Matter, and Time, it should seem, were properly neither Matter nor Time. Matter has no proper existence, it is only privative; it is something by which and in which works Intelligence.⁹ The Heavens exist (and in the Heavens, though this is something, as it were, apart from his theory, Albert admits the whole established order and succession of the Angels from Dionysius the Areopagite)¹ and Intelligence, which subsists, though oppressed and bowed

⁸ "Ille enim maxime intelligibilis est et omnis intellectus et intelligibilis causa et in omni intelligibili attingitur, sicut lumen quod est actus visibilium, attingitur in omni visibili per visum. Sicut tamen lumen secundum immensitatem, quam habet in rota solis et secundum immensitatem potestatis, qua omnia visibilia comprehendere potest, non potest capi vel comprehendere a visu, ita nec intellectus divinus, secundum excellentiam, quâ excelsit in se ipso, et secundum potestatem quâ illustrare potest super omnia, etiam super infi-

nita intelligibilia, capi vel comprehendere potest ab intellectu creato." Summa Theolog., quoted in Ritter, p. 196. The finite cannot comprehend the Infinite. But Albert always pre-supposes the moral as well as the Christian preparative for knowledge, virtue, and faith.

⁹ Ritter, p. 205.

¹ The whole Universe was a progressive descendant development, and ascendant movement, towards perfection.

down, even in lifeless things. But between the higher, imperishable intelligence of man and the intelligence of God there is nothing intermediate;* and yet there is eternal, irreconcilable difference. The Unity of God must develope itself in multiplicity. Man's Intelligence is a continual efflux from God, an operation of God, but yet not divine. As God it has its own Free Will.^m

And so Albert goes on, and so went on Albert's successors, and so go on Albert's interpreters, with these exquisitely subtle distinctions of words, which they refuse to see are but words, making matter immaterial,ⁿ forms actual beings or substances; making God himself, with perfect free-will, act under a kind of necessity; making thoughts things, subtilising things to thoughts; beguiling themselves and beguiling mankind with the notion that they are passing the impassable barriers of human knowledge; approaching boldly, then suddenly recoiling from the most fatal conclusions. In the pride and in the delight of conscious power, in the exercise of the reason, and its wonderful instrument Logic, these profound and hardy thinkers are still reproducing the same eternal problems; detaching the immaterial part of man, as it were, from his humanity, and blending him with the Godhead; bringing the Godhead down into the world, till the distinction is lost; and then perceiving

* On the great mediæval question Albert would be at once a Realist, a Conceptualist, and a Nominalist. There were three kinds of Universals, one abstract, self-existing, one in the object, one in the mind—Ritter, p. 219. Haureau, p. 14. M. Haureau treats this part at length.

^m Yet he does not deny, he asserts in other places, that which Christianity and Islam, Latin, Greek, and Arabian,

equally admitted, the operation of God in the soul of man through Angels.

ⁿ "Dahei ist das Sein an einem jeden Geschöpfe verschieden von dem, was es ist."—Ritter, p. 211. The matter is only the outward vehicle, as it were,—the Form gives the Being. This is the theory of Averroës. See on this subject the just and sensible observation of M. Haureau, from p. 24.

and crying out in indignation against what seems their own blasphemy. The close of all Albert the Great's intense labours, of his enormous assemblage of the opinions of the philosophers of all ages, and his efforts to harmonize them with the high Christian Theology, is a kind of Eclecticism, an unreconciled Realism, Conceptualism, Nominalism, with many of the difficulties of each. The intelligence of God was but an archetype of the intelligence of man, the intelligence of man a type of that of God; each peopled with the same ideas, representatives of things, conceptional entities, even words; existing in God before all existing things, before time, and to exist after time; in man existing after existing things, born in time, yet to share in the immortality of the intelligence. Thus religion, the Christian religion, by throwing upward God into his unapproachable, ineffable, inconceivable Mystery, is perhaps, in its own province, more philosophical than philosophy. Albert, in admitting the title of the Aristotelian or Greek, or Arabian philosophy, to scrutinize, to make comprehensible the Divine Intelligence; in attempting, however glorious the attempt, the Impossible, and affixing no limits to the power of human reason and logic, while he disturbed, to some extent unintentionally deposed, Theology, substituted no high and coherent Philosophy. Safe in his own deep religiousness, and his doctrinal orthodoxy, he saw not how with his philosophic speculations he undermined the foundations of his theology.

But this view of Albert the Great is still imperfect and unjust. His title to fame is not that he introduced and interpreted to the world, the *Metaphysics* and *Physics* of Aristotle, and the works of the Arabian philosophers on these abstruse subjects but because he

opened the field of true philosophic observation to mankind. In natural history he unfolded the more precious treasures of the Aristotelian philosophy, he revealed all the secrets of ancient science, and added large contributions of his own on every branch of it; in mathematics he commented on and explained Euclid; in chymistry, he was a subtle investigator; in astronomy, a bold speculator. Had he not been premature—had not philosophy been seized and again enslaved to theology, mysticism, and worldly politics—he might have been more immediately and successfully followed by the first, if not by the second, Bacon.^o

Of all the schoolmen Thomas Aquinas^p has left the greatest name. He was a son of the Count of Aquino, a rich fief in the Kingdom of Naples. His mother, Theodora, was of the line of the old Norman Kings; his brothers, Reginald and Landolph, held high rank in the Imperial armies. His family was connected by marriage with the Hohenstaufens; they had Swabian blood in their veins, and so the great schoolman was of the race of Frederick II. Monasticism seized on Thomas in his early youth; he became an inmate of Monte Casino; at sixteen years of age he caught the more fiery and vigorous enthusiasm of the Dominicans. By them he was sent—no unwilling proselyte and pupil—to France. He was seized by his worldly brothers, and

* "Nous n'avons interrogé que le philosophe; nous n'avons parcouru que trois ou quatre de ses vingt-un volumes in-folio, œuvre prodigieuse, presque surhumaine, à laquelle aucune autre ne saurait être comparée: que nous aurait appris, si nous avions eu le loisir de les consulter, le théologien formé à l'école des Pères, le scrupuleux investigateur des mystères de la

nature, le chimiste subtil, l'audacieux astronome, l'habile interprète des théorèmes d'Euclide. Le résultat des travaux d'Albert n'a été rien moins qu'une véritable révolution! Cela résume tous ses titres à la gloire."—Haureau, II p. 103. He perhaps rather foreboded than wrought this revolution.

^p Born about 1227.

sent back to Naples; he was imprisoned in one of the family castles, but resisted even the fond entreaties of his mother and his sisters. He persisted in his pious disobedience, his holy hardness of heart; he was released after two years' imprisonment—it might seem strange—at the command of the Emperor Frederick II. The godless Emperor, as he was called, gave Thomas to the Church. Aquinas took the irrevocable vow of a Friar Preacher. He became a scholar of Albert the Great at Cologne and at Paris. He was dark, silent, unapproachable even by his brethren, perpetually wrapt in profound meditation. He was called, in mockery, ^{Cologne, 1244, 1245.} the great dumb ox of Sicily. Albert questioned the mute disciple on the most deep and knotty points of theology; he found, as he confessed, his equal, his superior. "That dumb ox will make the world resound with his doctrines." With Albert the faithful disciple returned to Cologne. Again he went back to Paris, received his academic degrees, and taught with universal wonder. Under Alexander IV. he stood up in Rome in defence of his Order against the eloquent William de St. Amour; he repudiated for his Order, and condemned by his authority, the prophecies of the Abbot Joachim. He taught at Cologne with Albert the Great; also at Paris, at Rome, at Orvieto, at Viterbo, at Perugia. Where he taught, the world listened in respectful silence. He was acknowledged by two Popes, Urban IV. and Clement IV., as the first theologian of the age. He refused the Archbishopric of Naples. He was expected at the Council of Lyons, as the authority ^{March 2, 1274.} before whom all Christendom might be expected to bow down. He died ere he had passed the borders of Naples at the Abbey of Rossa Nuova, near Terracina, at the age of forty-eight. Dark tales were

told of his death;^a only the wickedness of man could deprive the world so early of such a wonder. The University of Paris claimed, but in vain, the treasure of his mortal remains.^r He was canonised by John XXII.

July 15,
1323.

Thomas Aquinas is throughout, above all, the Theologian. God and the soul of man are the only objects truly worthy of his philosophic investigation. This is the function of the Angelic Doctor, the mission of the Angel of the schools. In his works, or rather in his one great work, is the final result of all which has been decided by Pope or Council, taught by the Fathers, accepted by tradition, argued in the schools, inculcated in the Confessional. The Sum of Theology is the authentic, authoritative, acknowledged code of Latin Christianity. We cannot but contrast this vast work with the original Gospel: to this bulk has grown the New Testament, or rather the doctrinal and moral part of the New Testament.^s But Aquinas is an intellectual theologian: he approaches more nearly than most philosophers, certainly than most divines, to pure embodied intellect. He is perfectly passionless; he has no polemic

^a See vol. vi p. 406, with the quotation from Dante. One story was that Charles of Anjou had attempted violence on a niece of S. Thomas, and that the Saint had determined to denounce the crime before the Council of Lyons; others said that Charles resented the free if not king-killing doctrines of the treatise of S. Thomas, *de Regimine Principum*. But there is a full account of the calm, pious death of S. Thomas. He was ill more than a month, with every sign of natural decay.

^r Read the remarkable letter of the

University in the Life in the Bollandists.

^s My copy of the Summa of Aquinas has above twelve hundred of the very closest printed folio pages in double columns, without the indexes. I pretend not to have read it, but whoever is curious to know, as it were, the ultimate decisions of the Latin Church on most theological or ethical points will consult it, and will see the range and scope of that theology, and the groundwork of all the later casuistry.

indignation, nothing of the Churchman's jealousy and suspicion; he has no fear of the result of any investigation; he hates nothing, hardly heresy; loves nothing, unless perhaps naked, abstract truth. In his serene confidence that all must end in good, he moves the most startling and even perilous questions, as if they were the most indifferent, the very Being of God. God must be revealed by syllogistic process. Himself inwardly conscious of the absolute harmony of his own intellectual and moral being, he places sin not so much in the will as in the understanding. The perfection of man is the perfection of his intelligence. He examines with the same perfect self-command, it might almost be said apathy, the converse as well as the proof of the most vital religious truths. He is nearly as consummate a sceptic, almost atheist, as he is a divine and theologian. Secure, as it should seem, in impenetrable armour, he has not only no apprehension, but seems not to suppose the possibility of danger; he has nothing of the boastfulness of self-confidence, but in calm assurance of victory, gives every advantage to his adversary. On both sides of every question he casts the argument into one of his clear, distinct syllogisms, and calmly places himself as Arbiter, and passes judgement in one or a series of still more unanswerable syllogisms. He has assigned its unassailable province to Church authority, to tradition or the Fathers, faith and works; but beyond, within the proper sphere of philosophy, he asserts full freedom. There is no Father, even St. Augustine, who may not be examined by the fearless intellect.

Thomas Aquinas has nothing like the boundless range of Albert the Great; he disdains or fears Natural Philosophy. Within their common sphere he is the faithful disciple of the Master, but far surpasses him in clear-

ness, distinctness, precision, conclusiveness. He had some works of Plato, unknown to Albert, acquired perhaps in his native Magna Græcia; but, with Albert, he rejects the co-eternal ideas subsistent without and beyond the Deity. With Albert in that controversy he is a high Aristotelian, but repudiates as decisively the eternity of matter, the imperishability of the Universe.

Aquinas has, as it were, three distinct and unmingling worlds: the world of God, the world of the immaterial angels and demons, the world of mingled matter and intelligence,—that of man. God is alone, the One absolute, infinite, self-subsistent, whose essence it is "to be." No Eastern anti-materialist ever guarded the primal Godhead more zealously from any intrusive debasement. God is his own unique form: proceeds from no antecedent form, communicates with no inferior form. The Godhead is in itself, by itself, all that is. It is pre-existent to matter, eternally separate from matter.[†] But Thomas must never lose the Christian theologian in the philosopher. All this abstract, unmingling, solitary Deity, is not merely to be endowed with his eternal, immutable attributes, Omnipresence, Omniscience, Providence, but reconciled with the mysterious doctrine of the Trinity. Thomas has not merely to avoid the errors of Plato and Aristotle, but of Arius and Sabellius; and on the Trinity he is almost as diffuse, even more minute, than on the sole original Godhead. The most microscopic eye can hardly trace his exquisite and subtle distinctions, the thin and shadowy differences of words which he creates or seizes. Yet he himself seems to walk unbewildered in his own labyrinth; he walks apparently as calmly and firmly as if he were in

[†] Compare Haureau, p. 155.

open day; leaves nothing unquestioned, unaccounted for; defines the undefinable, distinguishes the undistinguishable; and lays down his conclusions as if they were mathematical truths.

Aquinas' world of Angels and Demons comprehended the whole mystic Hierarchy of the Areopagite. Matter is not their substance; they are immaterial. They are not self-subsistent; being is not their essence." They are, on one side, finite; on the other, infinite: upwards, finite; for they are limited by the stern line which divides them from the Godhead: infinite, downwards; for they seek no inferior subject. But as that which diversifies, multiplies, and individualises, is matter, and divisibility is the essential property of matter, all the Angels, thence, logically, would be but one Angel, as there is but one pure spirituality. In this point, and about the whole subject of Angels, Thomas, instead of being embarrassed, seems to delight and revel; his luxury of distinction and definition, if it be not a contradiction, his imaginative logic, is inexhaustible. He is absolutely wanton in the questions which he starts, and answers with all the grave satisfaction as on solemn questions of life and death.*

The third world is that of matter and of man. The world was created by God according to forms (or ideas) existent, not without but within the Deity; for God must have known what he would create. These forms, these ideas, these types of existing things, are part or God's infinite knowledge; they are the essence of God;

* "Esse Angelī non est essentia sed
... as." — Summa, 1. quest. xii.
Art. 4. They owe then being to a free
act of the divine will. Compare Hau-
teau, p. 155.

* E. g. "Utrum in Angelis sit cogni-
tio matutina et vespertina." "Whether
angels reason by logic" had been dis-
cussed before.

they are God. Man is inseparable from matter; matter cannot exist without form.⁷ The soul, the intelligence of man, constitutes the third world. It shares, in some degree, the immateriality of the two higher orders. It is self-subsistent; but it needs the material body, as its organ, its instrument. It is not, however, pre-existent. Origen was a name of ill repute in the Church; his doctrine therefore, by some subtle logical effort, must be rejected. Each separate soul is not created ere it is infused into the human body; this creation is simultaneous; nothing uncreate is presupposed.⁸ But if not self-subsistent, not possibly pre-existent, before their union with the body, how, according to the orthodox doctrine, can souls be self-subsistent after the dissolution of the union? St. Thomas takes refuge in the Angelic world. This, too, was created; and the souls, retaining the individuality, which they had acquired in their conjunction with matter, withdraw as it were into this separate immaterial and unmingling world.

It is obvious that our space only permits us to touch, and, we fear, with inevitable obscurity, some of the characteristic views of St. Thomas. St. Thomas, like his predecessor, Albert, on the great question of universals, is Eclectic; neither absolutely Realist, Conceptualist, nor Nominalist. Universals are real only in God, and but seemingly, in potentiality rather than actuality; they are subjective in the intelligence of man; they result objectively in things. St. Thomas

⁷ God cannot create matter without form; this is a necessary limit of his omnipotence. It would be a contradiction.—Summa.

⁸ "Cum anima sine corpore existens non habeat suæ naturæ perfectionem, nec Deus ab imperfectis suum opus in-

choinet, simpliciter fatendum est animas simul cum corporibus creare et infundi."—Summa, 1. quæst. xviii. 3. "Creatio est productio alicujus rei secundum suam totam substantiam nullo præsupposito quod sit vel increatum, vel ab aliquo creatum."—Quæst. lxx. 8.

rejects the Democritean effluxes of outward things, by which the atomistic philosophy accounted for our perceptions: he admits images of things reflected and received by the senses as by a mirror, and so brought under the cognisance of the intelligence. The intelligence has, as it were, only the power, a dormant faculty of knowledge, till the object is presented, through the image. But the conception by the senses is confused, indeterminate; till abstracted, analysed, at once universalised and individualised by the intelligence.*

Yet Thomas ruled not in uncontested supremacy even in his intellectual realm: he was encountered by an antagonist as severely intellectual as Franciscan himself. No doubt the jealousy of the rival orders, the Dominican and the Franciscan, had much to do with the war of the Scotists and the Thomists, which divided the very narrow world which understood, or thought they understood, the points in dispute, and the wider world who took either side, on account of the habit, Franciscan or Dominican, of the champion. It is singular to trace, even in their Scholasticism, the ruling characters, so oppugnant to each other, of the two Orders.

* "Cognitio indistincta. Ainsi la sensation est antérieure à l'intellection, c'est convenu, mais toute sensation est indéterminée, universellement confuse, avant d'être achevée, avant d'être acte qui la termine, c'est-à-dire l'idée individuelle de la chose sentie, le fantôme, de même l'intellection n'est devenue cette idée claire, positive, absolument distincte de toute autre, qui répond au mot humaine, qu'après un travail de l'esprit qui distrait tout le propre de l'humanité de la notion antérieure et confuse de l'animalité. On ne s'attendait peut-être pas à ce travail, chez un docteur du

treizième siècle, cette savante critique de la faculté de connaître"—Haureau, p. 203. I have made this extract, not merely because it contains an important illustration of the philosophy of Aquinas, but because it is such a remarkable indication of the penetrative good sense, which, notwithstanding all his scholastic subtlety, appears, as far as my narrow acquaintance with his works, to set Aquinas above all Schoolmen. I have read the splendid quarto volume of M. Carle, 'Histoire de la Vie et des Ecrits de S. Thomas d'Aquin,' of which I much admire the—type.

In Albert the Great, and in St. Thomas, there is something staid, robust, muscular, the calmness of conscious strength; their reasoning is more sedate, if to such a subject the term may be applied, more practical. The intelligence of man is to be trained by severe discipline to the height of knowledge; and knowledge is its high ultimate reward. With the Franciscans there is still

passion: in Bonaventura, the mild passion of Bonaventura.

Mysticism; in Duns Scotus, if it may be so said, Logic itself is become a passion. Duns is, by nature, habit, training, use, a polemic. In Ockham it is a revolutionary passion in philosophy as in politics. The true opposite, indeed rival he may be called, of Thomas, was his contemporary, his friend Bonaventura. These two men were to have met at the Council of Lyons. One died on the road, the other just lived to receive his Cardinal's hat, with the full applause of that great Œcumenic Synod: a Pope, an Emperor, and a King, attended his magnificent funeral. In Bonaventura the philosopher *recedes*; religious edification is his mission. A much smaller proportion of his voluminous works is pure Scholasticism: he is teaching by the Life of his Holy Founder, St. Francis, and by what may be called a new Gospel, a legendary Life of the Saviour, which seems to claim, with all its wild traditions, equal right to the belief with that of the Evangelists. Bonaventura himself seems to deliver it as his own unquestioning faith. Bonaventura, if not ignorant of, feared or disdained to know much of Aristotle or the Arabians: he philosophises only because in his age he could not avoid philosophy. The philosophy of Bonaventura rests on the theological doctrine of Original Sin: the soul, exiled from God, must return to God. The most popular work of Bonaventura, with his mystic admirers, was

the Itinerary of the Soul to God. The love of God, and the knowledge of God, proceed harmoniously together, through four degrees or kinds of light. The external light, by which we learn the mechanic arts: the inferior light, which shines through the senses, by these we comprehend individuals or things: the internal light, the reason, which by reflection raises the soul to intellectual things, to universals in conception: the superior light of grace, which reveals to us the sanctifying virtues, shows us universals, in their reality, in God.

Bonaventura rests not below this highest light.^b Philosophy pretends that it may soar to the utmost heights, and behold the Invisible; it presumes to aver that thought, by dwelling on God, may behold him in spirit and in truth. Against this doctrine Bonaventura protests with all his energy. Reason may reach the ultimate bounds of nature: would it trespass farther, it is dazzled, blinded by excess of light. Is faith in the intellect or in the affections? it enlightens the intellect, it rules over the affections. Which has the greater certitude, knowledge or faith? There must be a distinction. There is a knowledge which is confined to human things. There is a knowledge which is the actual vision of God. This ultimate knowledge, though of faith, is superior to faith; it is its absolute perfection. There is a certainty of speculation, a certainty of adhesion. The certainty of adhesion is the certainty of faith; for this men have died. What Geometer ever died to vindicate the certainty of geometry?^c All this

^b From Haureau, p. 224.

^c "Est enim certitudo speculationis, et prima est certitudo adhesionis, et prima quidem respicit intellectum, secunda vero respicit ipsum affectum. . . . Sic major est certitudo in ipsa fide quam sit in habitu scientiæ, pro eo quod vera fides magis facit adhærere ipsum credentem veritati creditæ, quam aliqua scientia alicujus rei scitæ. Videamus

lower knowledge ought to be disdainfully thrown aside for the knowledge of God. All sensible appearances, all intellectual operations, should be dismissed; the whole weight of the affections be fixed and centred on the one absolute essence in God. The faithful Christian, if he might know the whole of physical science, would, in his loyal adhesion to his belief, lose all that science rather than abandon or deny one article of the faith. The raptures of Bonaventura, like the raptures of all Mystics, tremble on the borders of Pantheism: he would still keep up the distinction between the soul and God; but the soul must aspire to absolute unity with God, in whom all ideas are in reality one, though many according to human thought and speech. But the soul, by contemplation, by beatific vision, is, as it were, to be lost and merged in that Unity.^d

Where the famous Duns Scotus was born, in Scotland, in Ireland, in Northumberland; why
Duns Scotus.
called the Scot, what was his parentage; all is utter darkness, thick and impenetrable as his own writings, from whence some derived his Greek name, Scotos. He appeared a humble Franciscan at Oxford;

enim veros fideles nec per argumenta, nec per tormenta, nec per blandimenta, inclinari posse ut veritatem quam credunt, saltem ore tenus, negent. Stultus etiam esset *geometra* qui pro quacunque certa conclusione geometriae, audeat subire mortem."—In Sentent. xxiii. quæst. 11 a 14, quoted by Haureau, p. 226. Strange prediction of Galileo! "Verus fidelis etiam si sciret totam physicam, mallet totam illam scientiam perdere, quam unum solum articulum perdere vel negare, adeo adhærens veritati creditus."—Ibid.

^d "Et quoniam cognoscens est unum, et cognita sunt multa, ideo omnes idee in Deo sunt unum, secundum rem, sed tamen plures secundum rationem intelligendi sive dicendi."—In Intel. i. xxv. 1-3, quoted by Ritter, p. 496. "Tu autem, o amice, circa mysticas visiones corroborato itinere et sensus desere et intellectuales operationes, et sensibilia et invisibilia, et omne non ens et ens, et ad unitatem, ut possibile est, incius restituere ipsius, qui est super omnem essentiam et scientiam." Itin. Ment. ad Deum, 2, 5, 7.—Ibid. p. 498.

the subtle Doctor gathered around him 30,000 pupils. At Paris he was not heard by less eager or countless crowds. From Paris he went to Cologne, and there died. The vast writings of Duns Scotus, which as lectures, thousands thronged to hear, spread out as the dreary sandy wilderness of philosophy; if its border be now occasionally entered by some curious traveller, he may return with all the satisfaction, but hardly the reward, of a discoverer. The toil, if the story of his early death be true, the rapidity, of this man's mental productiveness, is perhaps the most wonderful fact in the intellectual history of our race. He is said to have died at the age of thirty-four, a period at which most minds are hardly at their fullest strength, having written thirteen closely-printed folio volumes, without an image, perhaps without a superfluous word, except the eternal logical formularies and amplifications.* These volumes do not contain his Sermons and Commentaries, which were of endless extent. The mind of Duns might seem a wonderful reasoning machine; whatever was thrown into it came out in syllogisms: of the coarsest texture, yet in perfect flawless pattern. Logic was the idol of Duns; and this Logic-worship is the key to his whole philosophy. Logic was asserted by him not to be an art, but a science; ratiocination was not an instrument, a means for discovering truth: it was an ultimate end; its conclusions were truth. Even his language was

* Haureau adopts this account of the age of Duns without hesitation; it has been controverted, however, rather from the incredibility of the fact than from reasons drawn from the very few known circumstances or dates of his life. See Schröckh, xxiv. 437. Trithemius, a

very inaccurate writer, makes him a hearer of Alexander Hales in 1245; if so, at his death in 1308, he must have been above sixty. But no doubt the authority, whoever he was, of Trithemius wrote Scholar (follower), not Hearer.

Logic-worship. The older Schoolmen preserved something of the sound, the flow, the grammatical construction, we must not say of Cicero or Livy, but of the earlier Fathers, especially of St. Augustine. The Latinity of Duns is a barbarous jargon.^f His subtle distinctions constantly demanded new words: he made them without scruple. It would require the most patient study, as well as a new Dictionary, to comprehend his terms. Logic being a science, not an art, the objects about which it is conversant are not representatives of things, but real things; the conceptions of human thought, things, according to the Thomist theory, of second intention, are here as things of first intention, actual as subsistent. Duns, indeed, condescended to draw a distinction between pure and applied Logic; the vulgar applied Logic might be only an instrument; the universals, the entities of pure logic, asserted their undeniable reality. Duns Scotus is an Aristotelian beyond Aristotle, a Platonist beyond Plato; at the same time the most sternly orthodox of Theologians.^g On the eternity of matter he transcends his master: he accepts the hardy saying of Avicembron,^h of the universality of

^f Scotus has neither the philosophic dignity nor the calm wisdom of Thomas; he is rude, polemic. He does not want theologic hatred. "*Saraceni—vilissimi poici—asini* Mancher. *Ille maledictus Averroes.*"—Ritter, p. 360.

^g "Die Richtung, welche er seiner Wissenschaft gegeben hat, ist durchaus kirchlich."—Ritter, p. 336.

^h "Je reviens, dit-il, à la thèse d'Avicembron (*ego autem ad positionem Avicembronis redeo*), et je soutiens d'abord que toute substance, créée, corporelle ou spirituelle, participe de la matière. Je prouve ensuite que cette

matière est une en tous—quod sit unica materia."—Haureau, p. 328. "Selbst die Materie, obwohl sie die niedrigste von allem Seienden ist, muss doch also ein Seiendes gedacht werden und hat ihre Idee in Gott."—Ritter, p. 432. The modern Baconian philosophy may appear in one sense to have reached the same point as the metaphysical philosophy of Duns Scotus, to have subtilised matter into immateriality, to have reached the point where the distinction between the spiritual and material seems to be lost, and almost mocks definition. It is arrived at centres of

matter. He carries matter not only higher than the intermediate world of Devils and Angels, but up into the very Sanctuary, into the Godhead itself. And how is this? by dematerialising matter, by stripping it of everything which, to the ordinary apprehension, and not less to philosophic thought, has distinguished matter; by spiritualising it to the purest spirituality. Matter only became material by being conjoined with form. Before that it subsisted potentially only, abstract, unembodied, immaterial; an entity conceivable alone, but as being, conceivable, therefore real. For this end the Subtle Doctor created, high above all vulgar common matter, a primary primal, a secondary primal, a tertiary primal matter; and yet this matter was One. The universal Primary primal matter is in all things; but as the secondary primal matter has received the double form of the corruptible and incorruptible, it is shared between these two. The tertiary primal matter distributes itself among the infinite species which range under these genera.¹ It is strange to find Scholasticism, in both its opposite paths, gliding into Pantheism. An universal infinite Matter, matter refined to pure Spiritualism, comprehending the finite, sounds like the most extreme Spinosism. But Scotus, bewildered by his own skilful word-juggling, perceives not this, and repudiates the consequence with indignation. God is still with him

force, powers impalpable, imponderable, infinite. But it is one thing to refine away all the qualities of matter by experiment, and to do it by stripping words of their conventional meaning. Mr. Faraday's discoveries and his fame will not meet the fate of Duns Scotus.

¹ "Dicitur materia secundo prima quæ est subjectum generationis et cor-

ruptionis, quam mutant et transmutant agentia creata, seu angeli seu agentia corruptibilia; quæ ut dixi, addit ad materiam primo primam, quia esse subjectum generationis non potest sine aliquâ formâ substantiali aut sine quantitate, quæ sunt extra rationem materie primo primæ."—Haureau.

the high, remote Monad, above all things, though throughout all things.^k In him, and not without him, according to what is asserted to be Platonic doctrine, are the forms and ideas of things. With equal zeal, and with equal ingenuity with the Thomists, he attempts to maintain the free will of God, whom he seems to have bound in the chain of inexorable necessity.^m He saves it by a distinction which even his subtlety can hardly define. Yet, behind and without this nebulous circle, Duns Scotus, as a metaphysical and an ethical writer, is remarkable for his bold speculative views on the nature of our intelligence, on its communication with the outward world, by the senses, by its own innate powers, as well as by the influence of the superior Intelligence. He thinks with perfect freedom; and if he spins his spider-webs, it is impossible not to be struck at once by their strength and coherence. Translate him, as some have attempted to translate him, into intelligible language, he is always suggestive, sometimes conclusive.

The war of Scotists and Thomists long divided the

^k Haureau, p. 359.

^m "L'origine de toutes les erreurs propagées au sujet de la Création vient, dit-il, de ce que les philosophes ont témérairement assimilé la volonté divine à la volonté humaine, aussi combat-il de toutes ses forces cette assimilation, sans réussir, toutefois, à démêler d'une manière satisfaisante ce que c'est la détermination temporelle d'une acte éternelle." — Haureau, p. 363. The reader who may be curious to learn how Duns Scotus solves other important physical and metaphysical questions, the principle of motion, the personality and immortality of the soul,

will do well to read the chapters of M. Haureau, compared, if he will, with the heavier synopsis of Brucker, the neater of Tenneman, the more full and elaborate examination of Ritter. Ritter dwells more on the theological and ethical part of the system of Duns Scotus, whom he ranks not only as the most acute and subtlest, but, as should seem, the highest of the Schoolmen. The pages in which he traces the theory of Scotus respecting the means by which our knowledge is acquired are most able, and full of interest for the metaphysical reader.

Schools, not the less fierce from the utter darkness in which it was enveloped. It is not easy to define in what consisted their implacable, unforgiven points of difference. If each combatant had been compelled rigidly to define every word or term which he employed, concord might not perhaps have been impossible; but words were their warfare, and the war of words their business, their occupation, their glory. The Conceptualism or Eclecticism of St. Thomas (he cannot be called a Nominalist) admitted so much Realism, under other forms of speech; the Realism of Duns Scotus was so absolutely a Realism of words, reality was with him something so thin and unsubstantial; the Augustinianism of St. Thomas was so guarded and tempered by his high ethical tone, by his assertion of the loftiest Christian morality; the Pelagianism charged against Scotus is so purely metaphysical, so balanced by his constant, for him vehement, vindication of Divine grace,^a only with notions peculiar to his philosophy, of its mode of operation, and with almost untraceable distinctions as to its mode of influence, that nothing less than the inveterate pugnacity of Scholastic Teaching, and the rivalry of the two Orders, could have perpetuated the strife.^o That

^a Ritter, p. 359. He is not only orthodox on this point, he is hierarchical to the utmost. He adopts the phrase ascribed to St. Augustine, that he would not believe the Gospel but on the witness of the Church. The power of the keys he extends not only to temporal, but to eternal punishments—"doch mit dem Zusatze, dass hierbei, so wie in andern Dingen der Priester nur als Werkzeug Gottes handle, welcher selbst eines bösen Engels sich bedienen konnte um einer gültigen Taufe zu

vollziehen."—Scotus draws a distinction (he saves everything by a distinction which his subtlety never fails to furnish) between the absolute and secondary will of God.

^o Ritter thinks their philosophy vitally oppugnant (p. 364), but it is in reconciling their philosophy with the same orthodox theology that they again approximate. One defines away necessity till it ceases to be necessity, the other fetters free-will till it ceases to be free.

strife was no^d doubt heightened and embittered by their real differences, which touched the most sensitive part of the Mediæval Creed, the worship of the Virgin. This was coldly and irreverently limited by the refusal of the Dominican to acknowledge her Immaculate Conception and birth; wrought to a height above all former height by the passionate maintenance of that tenet in every Franciscan cloister, by every Franciscan Theologian.

But, after all, the mortal enemy of the Franciscan scholasticism was in the Franciscan camp. The religious mysticism of Bonaventura, the high orthodox subtilism of Duns Scotus, were encountered by a more dangerous antagonist. The schism of Francis-
William of Ockham canism was propagated into its philosophy; the Fraticelli, the Spiritualists, must have their champion in the Schools, and that champion in ability the equal of those without and those within their Order, of Aquinas, Bonaventura, Duns Scotus. As deep in the very depths of metaphysics, as powerful a wielder of the great arm of the war, Logic; more fearless and peremptory, as less under the awe of the Church, in his conclusions—William of Ockham had already shaken the pillars of the hierarchical polity by his audacious assertion of the more than co-equal rights of the temporal Sovereign; by his stern, rigid nominalism, he struck with scholastic arguments, in the hardest scholastic method, at the foundations of the Scholastic Philosophy. William was of undistinguished birth, from the village of Ockham, in Surrey; he entered into the Franciscan order, and was sent to study theology under Duns Scotus at Paris. The quarrel of Boniface VIII. and Philip the Fair was at its height. How deeply the haughty and rapacious Pope had injured the Franciscan order, especially the English

Franciscans, has been told.* How far William of Ockham was then possessed by the resentment of his Order, how far he had inclined to the extreme Franciscanism, and condemned his own Order, as well as the 'proud Prelates of the Church, for their avarice of wealth, does not clearly appear. He took up boldly, unreservedly, to the utmost height, the rights of temporal Sovereigns. In his Disputation on the ecclesiastical power[†] he refused to acknowledge in the Pope any authority whatever as to secular affairs. Jesus Christ himself, as far as he was man, as far as he was a sojourner in this mortal world, had received from his heavenly Father no commission to censure Kings; the partisans of the Papal temporal omnipotence were to be driven as heretics from the Church. In the strife of his Order with John XXII., William of Ockham is, with Michael of Cesena and Bonagratia, the fearless assertor of absolute poverty.[‡] These men confronted the Pope in his power, in his pride, in his wealth. The Defence of Poverty by William of Ockham was the most dauntless, the most severely reasoned, the most sternly consequent, of the addresses poured forth to astonished Christendom by these daring Revolutionists. Pope John commanded the Bishops of Ferrara and Bologna to examine and condemn this abominable book. Five years after, William of Ockham, Michael de Cesena and Bonagratia, were arraigned at Avignon, and in close custody, for their audacious opinions. William of Ockham might already, if he had any fear, shudder at the stake and the fire in which had perished so many of his brethren. They fled, took ship at Aigues Mortes, found

A.D. 1323

* See vol. vii. p. 90.

† "Disputatio super potestate ecclesiasticâ prælati atque principibus ter-

rarum commissâ."—In Goldastus Monarchia. Compare Haureau, p. 419

‡ Apud Brown, Fasciculus.

their way to the Court of Louis of Bavaria. They were condemned by the Pope, cast off by their own Order. The Order at the Synod of Perpignan renounced the brotherhood of these men, who denounced their wealth as well as that of the Pope, and would admit nothing less than absolute, more than apostolic poverty. Their sentence was that of heretics and schismatics, deprivation of all privileges, perpetual imprisonment. But William of Ockham, in the Court of Louis, at Munich, laughed to scorn and defied their idle terrors. He became the champion of the Imperial rights, of the Franciscan Antipope, Peter of Corbara. He did not live to put to shame by his firmer, and more resolute resistance to the Pope, the timid, vacillating, yielding Louis of Bavaria.

William of Ockham was in philosophy as intrepid and as revolutionary as in his political writings. He is a consummate schoolman in his mastery, as in his use of logic; a man who wears the armour of his age, engages in the spirit of his age, in the controversies of his age, but his philosophy is that of centuries later.* The scholastic theologian can discuss with subtlety equal to the subtlest, whether Angelic natures can be circumscribed in a certain place; the Immaculate birth and conception of the Virgin, on which he is faithfully Franciscan; Transubstantiation, on which he enters into the most refined distinctions, yet departs not from the dominant doctrine. As a philosopher, Ockham reverently secludes the Godhead† from his investigation. Logic, which deals

Quodlibeta. Compare Schrœckh, the notion of God so boldly formed by
xxxiv. 196-7. the older Schoolmen "C'est précisé-

* Quodlibet. ii. quest. ii. Haureau, ment cette notion rationnelle de la
422.—In another part M. Haureau substance divine que Guillaume d'Ock-
sums up Ockham's awful reserve on ham critique et réduit à un concept

with finite things, must not presume to discuss the Infinite First Cause. He at once, and remorselessly, destroys all the idols of the former schoolmen. Realism must surrender all her multifarious essences, her abstract virtues, her species, her ideas. Universals are but modes of thought; even the phantasms of Aquinas must disappear. Ideas are no longer things; they are the acts of the thinking being. Between the subject which knows and the object known there is nothing intermediate. The mind is one, with two modes or faculties,—sensitivity and intelligence. Sensation is not sufficient to impart knowledge; there must be also an act of intelligence: the former is purely intuitive, the latter is, as it were, judicial. The difference between the sensitive and intelligent is thus partly by experience, partly by reason. By experience, the child sees through sensation, not through intelligence; by reason, because the soul, when separate, sees intellectually, but not through the senses. The sensitive vision is the potential cause of the intellectual vision, but not the potential cause of the intellectual assent. After intuition comes abstraction, sensation, or the intuitive notion, being always singular; abstraction may, as it were, insulate that which is singular, disengaging it from all its surrounding circumstances; it may introduce plurality, combine, compare, multiply. Thus ideas are simple perceptions, or

arbitrairement composé, composé de concepts qui expriment bien, sans doute, quelque chose de Dieu (*aliquid Dei*), mais ne désignent pas Dieu lui-même, la substance, l'essence de Dieu, *quod est Deus*. cette notion abstraite de Dieu, cette notion qui, on le prouve bien, ne représente pas son objet, est la seule que possède la raison

humaine, la seule qui lui permet de soupçonner, de deviner, de poser l'entité mystérieuse de la suprême cause. Faut-il désirer une connaissance plus parfaite de cette cause? Sans aucun doute; mais en attendant, il faut s'en tenir à ce qu'il sait."—p. 454. See also the preceding pages.

conceptions, and so not only fall away the Democritean notions of actual images which have a local existence, and pass from the object to the sense, but likewise even the impressions, as of a seal, which is the doctrine of Scotus, and the real phantasms of St. Thomas." Of course he denies not the images or similitude of things in the organ of sight, but they are as the reflections in a mirror: they do not precede and determine, though they accompany the sensation. The universal is but a conception of the mind; and as these conceptions are formed, or perpetuated by these processes, each is the repetition, the reflection of the other, in intelligence, speech, writing. Universals are words, whether conceived, spoken, or written words, which by common consent express under one term many singular things.* In this respect, then, is William of Ockham a Nominalist in the strongest sense.

Thus may William of Ockham seem with fine and prophetic discrimination to have assigned their proper, indispensable, yet limited power and office to the senses; to have vindicated to the understanding its higher, separate, independent function; to have anticipated the famous axiom of Leibnitz, that there is nothing in the intellect but from the senses, except the intellect itself; to have anticipated Hobbes; foreshadowed Locke, not as Locke is vulgarly judged, according to his later French disciples, but in himself;† to have taken his

* "Dès que les idées ne sont plus considérées comme des choses mais comme des actes du sujet pensant, que de chimères s'évanouissent !" — p. 439.

† "Est . . . universale, vox vel scriptum, aut quodcumque aliud signum ex meditatione vel voluntario usu, significans plura singularia universa." — Quoted in Haureau, p. 469.

‡ I must be allowed to refer to the excellent article on Locke in Mr. Hallam's Literary History, and to a very elaborate and able review of this groundwork of Locke's philosophy in the 'Edinburgh Review,' lately republished among the Essays by Mr. Rogers,

stand on the same ground with Kant. What Abélard was to the ancestors of the Schoolmen was Ockham to the Schoolmen themselves. The Schoolmen could not but eventuate in William of Ockham; the united stream could not but endeavour to work itself clear; the incessant activity of thought could hardly fail to call forth a thinker like Ockham.

Such was the character of the Scholastic Philosophy, such the chief of the scholastic philosophers, such the final assertion and vindication of the sole dominion of Latin Christianity over the mind of man. Between the close of this age, but before the birth of modern philosophy, was to come the Platonising, half Paganising school of Marsilius Ficinus: the age to end in direct rebellion, in the Italian philosophers, against Christianity itself. But it was an extraordinary fact, that in such an age, when Latin Christianity might seem at the height of its mediæval splendour and power, the age of chivalry, of Cathedral and Monastic architecture, of poetry in its romantic and religious forms, so many powerful intellects should be so incessantly busy with the metaphysics of religion; religion, not as taught by authority, but religion under philosophic guidance, with the aid, they might presume to say with the servile, the compulsory aid, of the Pagan Aristotle and the Mohammedan Arabians, but still with Aristotle and the Arabians admitted to the honour of a hearing: not regarded as odious, impious, and godless, but listened to with respect, discussed with freedom, refuted with confessed difficulty. With all its seeming outward submission to authority, Scholasticism at last was a tacit universal insurrection against authority; it was the swelling of the ocean before the storm; it began to assign bounds to that which had been the universal all-embracing

domain of Theology. It was a sign of the reawakening life of the human mind that Theologians dared, that they thought it their privilege, that it became a duty to philosophise. There was vast waste of intellectual labour; but still it was intellectual labour. Perhaps at no time in the history of man have so many minds, and those minds of great vigour and acuteness, been employed on subjects almost purely speculative. Truth was the object of research; truth, it is true, fenced about by the strong walls of authority and tradition, but still the ultimate remote object. Though it was but a trammelled reluctant liberty, liberty which locked again its own broken fetters, still it could not but keep alive and perpetuate the desire of more perfect, more absolute emancipation. Philosophy once heard could not be put to silence.

One man alone, Roger Bacon, even in his own day, had stood aloof from this all-absorbing Theology, this metaphysical or ontological philosophy, which, with all the rest, was the dominant aim of all profound and rigidly syllogistic investigation; the primary, if not exclusive subject matter of all the vast volumes, in which the same questions, argued in the same forms, revolved in eternal round. Roger Bacon alone sought other knowledge, and by other processes of thought and reasoning. Not that physical, or mathematical, or even experimental sciences were absolutely disdained or proscribed among the highest Theologians. they were pursued by Albert the Great with the ardour of his all-grasping intellect. But with Roger Bacon they were the predominant master-studies. Even he, on his side, could not withdraw entirely from that which had been so long, and was to be still, so exclusively the province of all human thought, which must occupy it more or

less, Theology; but the others were manifestly the engrossing pursuit, the passion, as far as such men are capable of passion, of his mind. Yet Latin Christianity can hardly lay claim to the glory, whatever that might be, of Roger Bacon. The Church, which could boast her Albert, Aquinas, Bonaventura, Duns Scotus, repudiated Roger Bacon with jealous suspicion. That which is his fame in later days, heaped on him, in his own, shame and persecution. For at least ten years he was in prison; it is not quite clear that he ever emerged from that prison. Yet, though he has no proper place, though he is in no way the son or the scholar of Latin Christianity, still, in justice to the rulers in Latin Christendom, as well as characterising their rule (the exceptional man often throws the strongest light on the times), must be instituted a more close, yet of necessity rapid investigation into the extent and causes of the persecution of Roger Bacon.

At Oxford, his first place of study, Roger Bacon was remarked for his zeal in mathematical and scientific studies.² But Paris was at that time Born about 1214 to Transalpine Christendom what Athens was to later Rome. Without having attended lectures at Paris, no one could aspire to learned, or philosophical, or theological eminence. At Paris his great talent and acquirements obtained him the name of the "Wonderful Doctor." It was at Paris no doubt that he matured those studies, which he afterwards developed in his "Greater Work."³ He could not but excite wonder;

² It is disputed whether at Merton College or Brazenose Hall. As Bacon lodged both in one and in the other. The halls were merely places of residence for Scholars.
³ The *Opus Majus*.
 was not a member of Merton College, according to the fashion of the day he may possibly at different times have

doubtless he did excite more than wonder, for he dared to throw off entirely the bondage of the Aristotelian logic. When he judged Aristotle, it should seem, only by those parts of his works, matured in the Dialectics of the Schools, he would have been the Omar of Aristotle; he would willingly have burned all his books, as wasting time, as causes of error, and a multiplication of ignorance.^b But Aristotle, as a philosopher, especially as commented by Avicenna, after Aristotle the prince of philosophers, is the object of his profound reverence. The studies of Roger Bacon embraced every branch of physical science, Astronomy, Optics, Mechanics, Chemistry. He seems even to have had some glimpses of that which has first grown into a science in our own day. He was an industrious student of all languages, Hebrew, Greek, Arabic, the modern tongues. He had a dim notion of their kindred and filiation. He had a vision of a Universal Grammar, by which all languages were to be learned in an incredibly short space of time.^c In Paris his fellow-student was the famous Robert Gros-

^b "Si haberem potestatem super libros Aristotelis, ego facerem omnes cremari, quia non est nisi temporis amissio studere in illis, et causa erroris, et multiplicati erroris." See on the translators of Aristotle, *Opus Majus*, quoted by Jebb in *Præfat* 1 c. viii.

^c As his astronomy sometimes tampered with astrology, his chemistry degenerated into alchemy, so his knowledge of languages was not without what, in modern times, might be branded as chaulatanism. He professes that, according to his Universal Grammar, he could impart to an apt and diligent scholar a knowledge of Hebrew in three days, of Greek in as many

more. "Certum est mihi quod intra tres dies quemcunque diligentem et confidentem doceam Hebræum et simul legere et intelligere quicquid sancti dicunt et sapientes antiqui in expositione sacri textûs, et quicquid pertinet ad illius textûs correctionem, et expositionem, si vellet se exercere secundum doctrinam doctam et per tres dies sciret de Græco iterum, ut non solum sciret legere et intelligere quicquid pertinet ad theologiam, sed ad philosophiam et ad linguam Latinam."—*Epist. de Laud. S. Script.* ad P. Clement. IV. Here too he is breaking up the way to Biblical criticism.

tête : the intimate friendship of such a man could not but commend him to the favour of some of the loftier Churchmen. He returned to Oxford, and in an evil hour took the fatal step (it is said by the advice of Grostête, who was infatuated with the yet ardent zeal of the Franciscans) of becoming a Franciscan Friar. Thus he became not merely subject to the general discipline of the Church, but to the narrower, more rigid, more suspicious rule of the Order.^d It was difficult for a man of great powers to escape being Dominican or Franciscan. The Dominicans were severe and jealously orthodox. The Inquisition was entrusted to them ; but they had a powerful and generous corporate spirit, and great pride in men of their own Order who showed transcendent abilities. The Franciscan Generals were, with the exception perhaps of John of Parma, and of St. Bonaventura, men of mean talent, of contracted and jealous minds, with all the timidity of ignorance.^e The persecutor of Roger Bacon was Jerome of Ascoli, the General of his own Order ; first when as Cardinal he was aspiring towards the steps of the Papal throne ; afterwards when he ascended that throne as Nicolas IV.^f Nor indeed were wanting at that time causes which might seem to justify this ungenerous timidity in the Franciscans. They were watched with the jealousy of hatred by the Dominicans. Masters of the Inquisition, the Dominicans would triumph in the detection of

^d According to some he
Franciscan at Paris.

^e "Les Franciscains, toujours gouvernés, si l'on excepte Saint Bonaventura, par des généraux d'un menu talent et d'un médiocre savoir, ne se sentaient qu'humiliés de la présence et de la gloire des hommes de mérite, qui

s'étaient égarés parmi eux."—M. V. de Clerc, Hist. Lit. de la France, xx p 230.

^f Jerome d'Ascoli was at Paris, the probable date of Bacon's persecution, in 1278. I cannot but doubt the date usually assigned to his birth.

Franciscan heretics. There had been already the first rending of their body by the fatal schism, under John of Parma, hardly allayed by the gentle and commanding rule of Bonaventura. The fierce democratic Ghibellinism was even now fermenting among them, hereafter to break out in the Anti-Papal writings of William of Ockham. Roger Bacon himself might seem disposed to tamper with perilous politics. On his return to Oxford, he preached, it is said, before King Henry III., and denounced, in no measured terms, the employment of French and Gascon Nobles and Prelates in the great offices of State; the prodigality of the King towards these foreign favourites; his blind confidence in the Bishop of Winchester; his placing foreign Poitevins in possession of the chief forts and strongholds in the realm. Even in his own Order, Roger Bacon is said to have shown the natural contempt of a man of his high acquirements for the ignorance and superstition of his brethren; to have let fall alarming words about Reform in the Franciscan Convents. Yet was he not without powerful friends; Grostête, of Lincoln, and, after Grostête's death, men at least of wealth and liberality. He is reported to have received at Oxford no less a sum than 2000 Paris livres for books and instruments.

Even the Church as yet seemed more disposed to admire and to honour, than to look with cold suspicion on the wonderful man. Pope Clement IV.
A.D. 1266 accepted the dedication of the Work which contained all the great principles of his philosophy; all on which his awe-struck brethren looked as fearful magic. He received the work itself with some instruments invented by Bacon to illustrate his experiments. These Bacon, notwithstanding the direct prohibition of

the Rulers of his Order, who threatened him with the forfeiture of his book, and the penalty of confinement on bread and water, if he dared to communicate with any one what might be his unlawful discoveries,^a despatched through John of Paris to Rome. Philosophy was thus as it were entering its appeal to the Pope. Clement IV. was a Frenchman; no doubt knew the fame of Bacon at Paris. He had written a letter to Bacon entreating the communication of his famous wonders. Bacon had not dared to answer this letter till Clement was on the Papal throne; and even the Pope himself dared not openly to receive this appeal of philosophy. He stipulated that the books and the instruments should be sent as secretly as possible.^b For the ten years which followed the death of Clement IV., Bacon lived an object of wonder, terror, suspicion, and of petty persecution by his envious or his superstitious brethren. He attempted to propitiate Honorius IV. by a treatise on 'The Mitigation of the Inconveniences of Old Age.' At the close of these ten years, came to Paris, as Legate from Pope Nicolas III., Jerome of Ascoli, General of the Franciscan Order. Jerome was a true Franciscan; and before him the Franciscans found ready audience in the arraignment of that fearful magician, their Brother. It is singular that among the specific charges was that of undertaking to predict future events. Bacon's own words show that

Clement IV.
Pope.
1265-1268.

A.D. 1268-
1278.

^a Sub præcepto et penâ amissionis libri et jejunio in pane et aquâ pluribus diebus, prohibuerunt enim a communicando scriptum aliquod a se factum cum aliis quibuscunque — Opus Majus, MS Cott. fol 3.

quoted in an extremely good article on Roger Bacon in Didot's new Biographie Universelle, which has avoided or corrected many errors in the old biographies.

^b "Hoc quanto secretius poteris, facies." — Wadding, Ann. 11, p 294,

¹ Honorius IV not Nicolas IV. See Hist Lit de la France, p. 223.

the charge, however puerile, was true: "But for the stupidity of those employed, he would have framed astronomical tables, which, by marking the times when the heavenly bodies were in the same positions and conjunctions, would have enabled him to vaticinate their influence on human affairs." ^k That which to us was the rare folly of a wise man, to his own age was the crime of a wicked one. The general accusation was far more wide and indefinite, and from its indefiniteness more terrible. It was a compact with the Devil, from whom alone he had obtained his wonderful knowledge, and wrought his wonderful works. In vain Bacon sent out his contemptuous and defiant treatise on the nullity of magic: "Because things are above your shallow understandings, you immediately declare them works of the Devil!" In such words he arraigns not the vulgar alone: "Theologians and Canonists, in their ignorance, abhor these things, as works of magic, and unbecoming a Christian." And thus the philosopher spoke against his whole Order; and before a Cardinal Legate, a Master of that Order. Roger Bacon was consigned to a Monastic dungeon at least for ten years; and as it is not likely that Jerome of Ascoli, as Pope, would mitigate the rigour, no doubt conscientiously exercised, most probably for five years more, till the close of the Pontificate of Nicolas IV. If he emerged from the

^k Throughout Bacon's astiological section (read from p 237), the heavenly bodies act entirely through their physical properties, cold, heat, moisture, drought. The comet causes war (he attributes the wars then raging in Europe to a comet) not as a mere arbitrary sign, nor as by magic influence (all this he rejects as idle superstition), but as by its intense heat inflaming the blood and passions of men. It is an exaggeration (unphilosophical enough) of the influences of the planetary bodies, and the powers of human observation to trace their effects, but very different from what is ordinarily conceived of judicial astrology.

darkness of his prison, it was not more than a year before his death.

The value and extent of Roger Bacon's scientific discoveries, or prophecies of discoveries, how far his own, or derived from Arabian sources, belongs rather to the history of philosophy than of Latin Christianity. His astronomy no doubt had enabled him to detect the error in the Julian year: three centuries too soon he proposed to Clement IV. to correct the Calendar by his Papal authority: but I presume not to enter further into this or kindred subjects. In Optics his admirers assert that he had found out many remarkable laws, the principle of the Telescope, the Refraction of Light, the cause of the Rainbow. He fiamed burning glasses of considerable magnitude. Mechanics were among his favourite and most successful studies. In his Chemistry he had reached, or nearly reached, the invention of gunpowder: it is more certain that he sought the philosopher's stone, or at least a transmuting elixir with unlimited powers. There are passages about mounting in the air without wings, and self-moving carriages, travelling at vast speed without horses, which sound like vaticinations of still more wonderful things. He had no doubt discovered the cause of the tides. It is for others, too, to decide how far in the general principles of his philosophy he had anticipated his greater namesake, or whether it was more than the sympathy of two kindred minds working on the same subjects, which led to some singular yet very possibly fortuitous coincidences of thought and expression.^m This, how-

^m See Mr. Forster's 'Mohammedanism Unveiled,' and Mr. Hallam's judicious remarks, 'Lit Hist. Mr Brewer (in the Rolls publications) has made a most valuable addition to the published works of Roger Bacon. His volume contains the *Opus Tertium*, the *Opus Minus*, the *Computus*, &c. This pub-

ever, is certain, that although the second Bacon's great work, as addressed to Europe, might condescend to the Latin form, it was in its strong copious Teutonic English that it wrought its revolution, that it became the great fountain of English thought, of English sagacity, the prelude to and the rule of English scientific discovery.

Roger Bacon has rather thrown us back in our chronology to the age of the older Scholasticism; but Scholasticism ruled supreme almost to the close of exclusive Latin Christianity; it expired only by degrees; its bonds were loosened, but not cast off: if its forms had given place to others more easy, natural, rhetorical, its modes of thought, its processes of ratiocination, its logic, and its definitions, still swathed the dead body of Christian Theology. Gerson was still in a great degree a schoolman, Wycliffe himself at Oxford was a schoolman. But Latin Christianity was not all scholastic theology, it was religion also; it did not altogether forget to be piety, holiness, charity; it was not content with its laborious endeavours to enlighten the mind: it knew still that the heart was its proper domain. The religious feelings, the religious affections, the religious emotions, were not abandoned for the eternal syllogisms of the schools, the interminable process of twentyfold assertion, twentyfold objection, twentyfold conclusion. It was not enough that the human intelligence should be taught that it was an efflux, a part of the Divine intel-

lection (London, 1859) appears to have been unknown to M. Charles, in whose elaborate work, '*Roger Bacon, sa Vie, ses Ouvrages, ses Doctrines*' (Paris, 1861), these writings are quoted and extracted from, as if still MSS. M.

Charles, I observe, with all his admiration of Roger Bacon, reduces his scientific attainments very considerably, and seemingly on just grounds.—Part iv. c. 3

ligence. Nor was the higher office of training the soul of man to communion with Christ by faith, purity, and love, altogether left to what may be called Scholastic Mysticism. In one remarkable book was gathered and concentrated all that was elevating, passionate, profoundly pious, in all the older mystics. Gerson, Rysbroek, Tauler, all who addressed the heart in later times, were summed up, and brought into one circle of light and heat, in the single small volume, the 'Imitation of Christ.' That this book supplies some imperious want in the Christianity of mankind, that it supplied it with a fullness and felicity, which left nothing, at this period of Christianity, to be desired, its boundless popularity is the one unanswerable testimony. No book has been so often reprinted, no book has been so often translated, or into so many languages, as the 'Imitation of Christ.'^a The mystery of its authorship, as in other cases, might have added to its fame and circulation; but that mystery was not wanted in regard to the 'Imitation.' Who was the author—Italian, German, French, Fleming?^o With each of these races it is taken up as a question of national vanity. Was it the work of Priest, Canon, Monk? This, too, in former times, was debated with the eagerness of rival Orders.^p The size of the book, the manner, the style, the arrange-

Imitation
of Christ.

^a According to M. Michelet (whose rhapsody, as usual, contains much which is striking truth, much of his peculiar sentimentalism) there are sixty translations into French, in some respects he thinks the French translation, the 'Consolation,' more pious and touching than the original.

^o Italian, French, German idioms have been detected.

^p Several recent writers, especially

M. Onesime Roy, 'Etudes sur les Mystères,' have thought that they have proved it to be by the famous Gerson. If any judgement is to be formed from Gerson's other writings, the internal evidence is conclusive against him. M. Michelet has some quotations from Thomas à Kempis, the author at least of a thick volume published under that name, which might seem equally to endanger his claim. But to me, though

ment, as well as its profound sympathy with all the religious feelings, wants, and passions; its vivid and natural expressions, to monastic Christianity what the Hebrew Psalms are to our common religion, and to our common Christianity; its contagious piety; all conspired to its universal dissemination, its universal use. This one little volume contained in its few pages the whole essence of the St. Victors, of Bonaventura without his Franciscan peculiarities, and of the later Mystic school. Yet it might be easily held in the hand, carried about where no other book was borne,—in the narrow cell or chamber, on the journey, into the solitude, among the crowd and throng of men, in the prison. Its manner; its short, quivering sentences, which went at once to the heart, and laid hold of and clung tenaciously to the memory with the compression and completeness of proverbs;¹ its axioms, each of which suggested endless thought; its imagery, scriptural and simple, were alike original, unique. The style is ecclesiastical Latin, but the perfection of ecclesiastical Latin,—brief, pregnant, picturesque; expressing profound thoughts in the fewest words, and those words, if compared with the scholastics, of purer Latin sound or construction. The facility with which it passed into all other languages, those especially of Roman descent, bears witness to its perspicuity, vivacity, and energy. Its arrangement has something of the consecutive progress of an ancient initiation; it has its commencement,

inferior, the other devotional works there ascribed to Thomas à Kempis, the *Soliloquium Animæ*, the *Hortulus Rosarum*, and *Vallis Luliorum*, even the Sermons, if not quite so pure, are more than kindred, absolutely the same, in thought and language and style. See the *Opera T. à Kempis*: Antwerp, 1515. ¹ It is singular how it almost escapes or avoids that fatal vulgarism of most mystic works, metaphors taken from our lower senses, the taste, the touch.

its middle, and its close ; discriminating yet leading up the student in constant ascent ; it is an epopee of the internal history of the human soul.

The 'Imitation of Christ' both advanced and arrested the development of Teutonic Christianity ; it was prophetic of its approach, as showing what was demanded of the human soul, and as endeavouring, in its own way to supply that imperative necessity ; yet by its deficiency, as a manual of universal religion, of eternal Christianity, it showed as clearly that the human mind, the human heart, could not rest in the Imitation. It acknowledged, it endeavoured to fill up the void of *personal* religion. The Imitation is the soul of man working out its own salvation, with hardly any aid but the confessed necessity of divine grace. It may be because it is the work of an ecclesiastic, a priest, or monk ; but, with the exception of the exhortation to frequent communion, there is nothing whatever of sacerdotal intervention : all is the act, the obedience, the aspiration, the self-purification, self-exaltation of the soul. It is the Confessional in which the soul confesses to itself, absolves itself ; it is the Direction by whose sole guidance the soul directs itself. The Book absolutely and entirely supersedes and supplies the place of the spiritual teacher, the spiritual guide, the spiritual comforter : it is itself that teacher, guide, comforter. No manual of Teutonic devotion is more absolutely sufficient. According to its notion of Christian perfection, Christian perfection is attainable by its study, and by the performance of its precepts : the soul needs no other mediator, at least no earthly mediator, for its union with the Lord.

But 'The Imitation of Christ,' the last effort of Latin Christianity, is still monastic Christianity. It is abso-

lutely and entirely selfish in its aim, as in its acts. Its sole, single, exclusive object, is the purification, the elevation of the individual soul, of the man absolutely isolated from his kind, of the man dwelling alone in the solitude, in the hermitage of his own thoughts; with no fears or hopes, no sympathies of our common nature: he has absolutely withdrawn and secluded himself not only from the cares, the sins, the trials, but from the duties, the connexions, the moral and religious fate of the world. Never was misnomer so glaring, if justly considered, as the title of the book, the 'Imitation of Christ.' That which distinguishes Christ, that which distinguishes Christ's Apostles, that which distinguishes Christ's religion—the Love of Man—is entirely and absolutely left out. Had this been the whole of Christianity, our Lord himself (with reverence be it said) had lived, like an Essene, working out or displaying his own sinless perfection by the Dead Sea: neither on the Mount, nor in the Temple, nor even on the Cross. The Apostles had dwelt entirely on the internal emotions of their own souls, each by himself, St. Peter still by the Lake of Gennesaret, St. Paul in the desert of Arabia, St. John in Patmos. Christianity had been without any exquisite precept for the purity, the happiness of social or domestic life; without self-sacrifice for the good of others; without the higher Christian patriotism, devotion on evangelic principles to the public weal; without even the devotion of the missionary for the dissemination of Gospel truth; without the humbler and gentler daily self-sacrifice for relatives, for the wife, the parent, the child. Christianity had never soared to be the civiliser of the world. "Let the world perish, so the single soul can escape on its solitary plank from the general wreck," such had been its final axiom. The

'Imitation of Christ' begins in self—terminates in self. The simple exemplary sentence, "He went about doing good," is wanting in the monastic gospel of this pious zealot. Of feeding the hungry, of clothing the naked, of visiting the prisoner, even of preaching, there is profound, total silence. The world is dead to the votary of the Imitation, and he is dead to the world, dead in a sense absolutely repudiated by the first vital principles of the Christian faith. Christianity, to be herself again, must not merely shake off indignantly the barbarism, the vices, but even the virtues of the Mediæval, of Monastic, of Latin, Christianity.

CHAPTER IV.

Christian Latin Poetry. History.

WHAT did Latin Christianity add to the treasures of Latin poetry? Poetry, as in Greece, may have its distinct epochs in different forms, but it rarely, if ever, renews its youth.* Hardly more than half a century contains all that is of the highest order in Latin poetry—Lucretius, Catullus, Virgil, Horace, the Elegiacs, Ovid. Even that noble declamatory verse, which in the best passages of Lucan, in Juvenal, and even in Claudian (this, with the philosophic and didactic poetry, Lucretius, Virgil, and the exquisite poetry of common sense and common life in Horace, the only indigenous poetry of Rome), dies feebly out in the triumph of Christianity over Heathenism, as celebrated by Prudentius in his book against Symmachus.

The three earlier forms of Christian Latin poetry were—I. Paraphrases of the Scripture, II. Legends of Saints, and III. Hymns—with a few controversial poems, like that of S. Prosper on Pelagianism. I. In the Scriptural Poems the life and energy of the biblical annalists or poets are beaten out to pleonastic and wearisome length; the antithetic or

* It has done so besides in Greece, deion; Germany but one, and that a late one, of Schiller and Goethe. The most striking parallel is in India, of the vast Epics, the Mahabharata and Ramayana, of the Drama of Calyasa-
 in England alone, hardly in Italy, unless Alfieri be admitted to make a third Epoch, with Dante and Petrarca, with Ariosto and Tasso. Spain has had but one, that of Lope, Cervantes, and Cal-

parallelistic form of the Hebrew poetry is entirely lost; the uncongenial Orientalism of thought and imagery will not submit to the hard involutions of the Latin: it dislocates the harmony of the verse, if verse still retains or strives after harmony, without giving its own rude strength or emphatic force. The Vulgate alone, by creating almost a new language, has naturalised the biblical thoughts and figures, which obstinately refuse to be bound in the fetters of the Latin Hexameter. The infallible poetic sentiment of mankind will still refuse the name of poetry to the prolix, though occasionally vigorous, versifications of Fortunatus, Juvencus, Sedulius, Arator, Avitus, and the rest. As to the old voyager in the vast interminable ocean, if he beheld on some dreary mass of rock a patch of brilliant green, a tuft of graceful trees, a cool rush of water, it became a paradise—a Tinian or a Juan Fernandez—and is described as one of the Elysian islands: so the curious reader, if, on traversing these endless poems, he discovers some lines more musical, some images more happily embodied in words, some finer or more tender thoughts expressed not without nature, he bursts out into rapture, and announces a deep mine of rich and forgotten poetry. The high-wrought expectations of the next visitants revenge their disappointment by exaggerating perhaps the dreariness and the barrenness.^b In these poems creative power there is and can be

^b Even M. Guizot, in his *Lectures on Civilisation*, cites passages from these authors, with praise, as it seems to me, far beyond their due. They are pre-Miltonic, as he asserts, in some of their thoughts, in some of their imagery, that is, they are drawn from the same sources; but what they want is, what Milton has given them, Poetry. So too M. Ampère in his valuable *Lectures*. The passage which I have quoted from Dracontius the Spaniard, in the *History of Christianity* (iii. p. 356), still appears to me the most favourable example which has occurred in the course of my reading: and I

none: invention had been a kind of sacrilege. The Hebrew poetry, in the coldest and most artificial translation, preserves something of its life and sententious vigour, its bold figures and imagery: in the many-folded shroud of the Latin poetic paraphrase it is a mummy.

The Epic Poetry of Latin Christianity* (I feel the abuse of the words) had done its work of paraphrase, or had nearly exhausted itself in a few centuries; but if it sunk almost into silence from the fifth to the eighth, it rose again more ambitious, and seized the office of the historian, or that which had been the sole function of the humble orator under the later empire, that of the panegyrist. Hardly a great historic event took place, hardly a great man ascended a throne or achieved fame, but some monkish versifier aspired to immortalise him with an interminable length of harsh hexameter or of elegiac verse. Charlemagne indeed was mostly reserved for later romance, and happily had his historian, Eginhard. But Louis the Pious was celebrated by Ermoldus Nigellus in a long poem in elegiac verse; the siege of Paris by the Normans was sung in hexameters by Abbo; the anonymous panegyrist endeavoured to raise the Italian Berengar into a hero; Hroswitha wrote of the deeds of the Emperor Otho; Gunther, the Ligurian, those of Barbarossa; Donizo celebrated the Countess Matilda, from whom was inseparable the great name of Gregory VII. William the Apulian described the conquests of the Normans; William of Brittany, Philip Augustus; and so in unexhausted succession to the Cardinal Poet of Cœlestine V. and Boniface VIII. But from all those historical poems, who has yet struck out

have toilsomely read much of that age and to some of the Jesuits, who are at least correct, animated, harmonious.
 * To me they are inferior as Christian Latin Poetry to Sanazzaro or Vida, |

for our admiration one passage of genuine poetry? Perhaps their great merit is their want of poetry: they can lie under no suspicion of invention, hardly of poetic embellishment: they are simply verse chronicles, as veracious as the works of the contemporary prose historians of the cloister.

Nor were these inexhaustible and indefatigable writers in Latin verse content with the domain of his- Later Latin poems. tory, or the reward of the panegyric orator. They seized and petrified, either for their amusement, or as a trial of skill, or for the solace and entertainment of their brother Monks, the old traditional German poetry, the fabulous histories, the initiatory romances, which, in their rude vernacular form and language, began to make themselves heard. What the Court or the Castle Hall listened to in the Lay or the Tale of the Wandering Minstrel, was heard in the Cloister in a Latin version. The Monks converted to their own use, perhaps supposed that they were saving from destruction, by transferring into imperishable Latin, the fleeting or expiring songs, which became the *Nibelungen* and the *Heldenbuch*. Such doubtless was the origin of the remarkable poem called *Waltharius*, or the Expedition of Attila, founded on the Legends of Dietrich, Siegfried, and Etzel. But even in this very curious work it is remarkable that, although the innate poetry of the subject has given more than usual animation to the monkish versifier, yet the prosaic and historic element predominates. The cloister poet labours to make that history which is pure mythic romance; the wild song is hardening into a chronicle.* The epic of John of Exeter, on

* *De Expeditione Attilæ*, edited by 1838. Compare Gervinus, *Geschichte Fischer*, Leipzig, 1780; and later by *der poetischen Nat. Lit. der Deutschen*, Grimm and Schmeller, Göttingen, 1. p. 99 *et seqq.*

the War of Troy (as no doubt his lost Antiocheis), is, in verse, the romance history prevalent under the authority of Dictys Cretensis and Dares Phrygius, during the middle ages.^d With other Poems of that class, it mingles in discordant confusion the wild adventures of the romance writers, the long desultory tales and luxuriant descriptions of the Trouvères, with the classical form of verse. Throughout it is the Monk vainly labouring to be the Bard; it is popular poetry cast in a form most remote from popularity, not only in a language, but in an artificial mould, which unfitted it for general acceptance. It was in truth the popular poetry of a small class, the more learned of the clergy and of the Monks: the unlearned of that class must still have sought, and did seek, with the lay vulgar, their poetic enjoyment from the vernacular minstrel or Trouvère. Latinised, it was, as they no doubt thought, chastened and elevated for their more pious and fastidious ears. Latin verse condescended to this humbler office, little suspecting that these popular songs contained elements of the true poetic spirit, which would throw all the Latin epics of the middle ages into irretrievable obscurity. Nothing indeed could escape these all-appropriating indefatigable versifiers of the cloister. Almost all the vernacular poetry of the middle ages has its Latin counter-type, poems of chivalry, poems of adventure, of course Saint-Legends, even the long fables, which the Germans call beast-poetry, and the amatory songs. The Latin version of Reynard the Fox^e has not been able, in the harsh

^d Warton, in his History of English Poetry, gives some spirited verses from John of Exeter. The poem may be read (it is hard reading) subjoined to the edition of Dictys Cretensis and Dares Phrygius. Amsterdam, 1702.
^e Renardus Vulpes. Editio Princeps. Edited by M. Mone. Stutgard et Tubinge, 1832.

and uncongenial form of Monkish elegiac verse, altogether to quench the drollery of the original. It was written by a man with a singular mastery over the barbarous but expressive Latin of his day, of extraordinary ingenuity in finding apt and fitting phrases for all the strange notions and combinations in this bestial allegory. But "Renardus Vulpes" is manifestly of a late period; it is a bitter satire on Monks and Monkery. The Wolf Isengrim is an Abbot: it contains passages violently and coarsely Anti-papal.^f It belongs, the Latin version at least, rather perhaps to the class of satiric than of epic Latin poetry.

On the whole, this vast mass of Latin poetry offers no one exception to the eternal irrepeatable law, that no great poet is inspired but in his native language. The Crusades were, perhaps happily, too late even to tempt the ambition of the Cloister poets. By that time, the art of Latin versification, if not lost, was not so common: the innate poetry of the subject breaks occasionally through the barbarous but spirited prose of William of Tyre and James de Vitry.

II. The poems on the Lives of the Saints, it might have been supposed, as treating on subjects in which the mythic and imaginative element of Christianity predominated, would at least display more freedom and originality. They were addressed to the higher emotions, which poetry delights to waken, wonder, sympathy, veneration, pity; they were legends in which noble men and beautiful women, Saints and Holy Vir-

^f This alone would confute (if confirmation were necessary) the theory of the editor M. Mone, who attributes the aim of the Satire to certain obscure personages in an obscure but early period in the history of Flemish Gaul. Note, p. 1 *et seqq.* The Flemish origin of the poem seems now proved, but the original was clearly Teutonic not Latin.

gins, were at issue with power, with cruelty, with fate. The new poetic machinery of Angels and Devils was at the command of the poet; the excited faith of the hearers was ready to accept fiction for truth; to believe the creation of the poet with unsuspecting belief. But legend only reluctantly and ungraciously submitted to the fetters of Latin verse; the artificial form seemed to dull the inspiration. Even in the earliest period, the Saint-Poems and the Martyrdoms (except perhaps some pleasing descriptions in Paulinus of Nola) are, in my judgement, far inferior, even in poetic merit, to the prose legends. I know nothing equal to the "Martyrs of Vienne," or the "Perpetua and Felicitas," even in the best of Prudentius, who is in general insufferably long, and suffocates all which is noble or touching (and there is much of both) with his fatal copiousness. In later times the lives of St. Boniface, St. Gall, and St. Anschar have more of the imaginative tone of poetry than the hard harsh verses of the period. I should almost say that the Golden Legend awakens more of the emotion of poetry than any of the poetic lives of the mediæval Saints.

III. Even in the Hymnology^a of the Latin Church, her lyric poetry, it is remarkable, that, with the exception of the *Te Deum*, those hymns, which have struck, as it were, and cloven to the universal heart of Christendom, are mostly of a late period. The stanzas which the Latin Church has handed down in her services from Prudentius are but the flowers gathered from a wilderness of weeds.^b The "*Pange Lingua Gloriosi*" is attri-

^a Compare *Thesaurus Hymnologicus*, H. A. Daniel. Nales, 1841. A Poem. *Cathem xii. v. 125* Prudentius, even in Germany, was the great copious and excellent collection. popular author of the Middle Ages; no

^b The two or three stanzas, '*Salvete Flores Martyrum*,' are from the middle weak but the Bible appears with as

buted to Venantius Fortunatus, or Mamertus Claudianus in the fifth century; the "*Stabat Mater*" and the "*Dies Iræ*" are, the first probably by Jacopone da Todi, and the last by Thomas di Celano, in the fourteenth. These two, the one by its tenderness, the other by its rude grandeur, stand unrivalled; in melody, perhaps the hymn of St. Bonaventura to the Cross approaches nearest to their excellencies.¹ As a whole, the Hymnology of

many glosses (interpretations or notes) in high German, which show that it was a book of popular instruction Rodolf Raumer, *Einwirkung Christenthums auf die Althoch Deutsche Sprache*, p. 222. — "Seine Hymnen und die des Ambrosius, bilden mit den übrigen Christlichen Lyrikern, das Gesangbuch des mittelalterlichen Klerus." — The hymns of Ambrose were translated into German in the ninth century.

¹ The two former are too well known to extract. Take two stanzas of the latter :—

"Recordare sanctæ crucis,
Qui perfectam viam ducis,
Delectæ frater,
Sanctæ crucis recordare,
Et in ipsâ meditare
Insatiabiliter.

"Quum quiescas aut laboras,
Quando rides, quando ploras,
Dolens givæ gaudeas,
Quando vadis, quando venis,
In solatus in poenis
Cruce[m] corde teneas "

—Apud Daniel, ii p 102

Of the more general hymns I would select that for the Evening, the '*Deus Creator Omnium*,' for its gentle cadence (p. 17); the Paschal Hymn of the Roman Breviary (usually the best), p. 83; In *Exequis Defunctorum* (p. 137) :—

"Jam mœsta quiesce querela,
Lacrimas suspendite matres :

Nullis sua pignora plangat,
Mors hæc reparatio vitæ est.
Quidnam tibi saxa cavata,
Quid pulcra volunt monumenta
Res quod nisi creditur illis,
Non mortua, sed data somno "

Or, the two attributed to St. Bernard, p. 227 and 432, which show the height of his mysticism. Of what are called the Rhythms, by far the finest is that on Paradise, attributed, no doubt without ground, to St. Augustine, more likely by Damiani. It was never chanted in the church :—

"Ad perennis vitæ fontem mens sitivit
arida,
Crustra carnis præsto frangi clausa querit
anima
Giscit, ambit, eluctatur exul frui patriâ?
Dum pressuris et ærumnis se gemit obnoxiam,
Quam amisit, dum deliquit, contemplatur
gloriam,
Præsens malum auget boni perditæ memoriam.

Nam quis promat summæ pacis quanta
sit lætitia,
Ubi vivis margaritis surgunt ædificia,
Auro celsa micant tecta, radiant triclinia
Solis gemmis pretiosis hæc structura nec-
titur,
Auro mundo, tanquam vitro, urbis via
sternitur,
Abest limus, deest finis, lues nulla cer-
nitur

Hiems horrens, æstas torrens illic nun-
quam sæviunt,
Flos perpetuus rosarum ver agit per-
petuum,
Candent lilia, rubescit crocus, sudat bal-
samum

Virent prata, vernant sata, rivi mellis
confiunt.

the Latin Church has a singularly solemn and majestic tone. Much of it, no doubt, like the lyric verse of the Greeks, was twin-born with the music; it is inseparably wedded with the music; its cadence is musical rather than metrical. It suggests, as it were, the grave full tones of the chant, the sustained grandeur, the glorious burst, the tender fall, the mysterious dying away of the organ. It must be heard, not read. Decompose it into its elements, coldly examine its thoughts, its images, its words, its versification, and its magic is gone. Listen to it, or even read it with the imagination or the memory full of the accompanying chant, it has an unfelt and indescribable sympathy with the religious emotions, even of those of whose daily service it does not constitute a part. Its profound religiousness has a charm to foreign ears, wherever there is no stern or passionate resistance to its power. In fact, all Hymnology, vernacular as well as Latin, is poetry only to predisposed or habituated ears. Of all the lyric verse on the noblest, it might be supposed the most poetic subject, how few hymns take their place in the poetry of any language.

But out of the Hymnology, out of the Ritual, of which the hymns were a considerable part, arose that which was the initiatory, if rude, form of religious tragedy. The Christian Church made some bold advance to be the theatre as well as the temple of the people. But it had an intuitive perception of the danger; its success appalled its religious sensitiveness. The hymn which, like the Bacchic song of the Greeks, might seem

*Pigmentorum spirat odor, liquor et aromatum,
Peudent poma floridorum nec lapsura nemorum*

Non alternat luna vias, sol vel cursus siderum,

*Agnus est felix orbis lumen inocciduum,
Nox et tempus desunt ei, diem fert continuum*

— Daniel, i. p. 116, and in works of St. Augustine.

There are thirteen more stanzas.

developing into scenic action, and becoming a drama, shrank back into its simpler and more lonely grandeur. The Ritual was content to worship, to teach the facts of the Scripture history only by the Biblical descriptions, and its significant symbolic ceremonial. Yet the Latin Mysteries, no doubt because they were Latin, maintained in general their grave and serious character. It was when, to increase its power and popularity, the Mystery spoke in the vulgar tongue, that it became vulgar;* then buffoonery, at first perhaps from rude simplicity, afterwards from coarse and unrestrained fun, mingled with the sacred subjects. That which ought to have been the highest, noblest tragedy, became tragi-comedy, and was gradually driven out by indignant and insulted religion.

In its origin, no doubt the Mystery was purely and essentially religious. What more natural than to attempt, especially as the Latin became more unfamiliar to the common ear, the representation rather than the description of the striking or the awful scenes of the Gospel history, or those in the lives of the Saints; to address the quick, awakened and enthralled eye, rather than the dull and palsied ear.^m There was already on the walls, in the chapels, in the cloisters, the painting representing the history, not in words, but in act; by gesture, not by speech. What a theatre! Such religious uses could not desecrate buildings so profoundly hallowed; the buildings would rather hallow the spectacle. That theatre was the Church, soaring to its

* See in Warton (the passage is worth reading) the dull buffoonery introduced into the Mystery on the Murder of the Innocents, performed by the English at the Council of Constance. This, however, must have been in Latin, but

probably from an English original.—vol. II, p. 75.

^m "Segnius irritant animos demissa per aurem
Quam quæ sunt oculis subjecta fidelibus"—A P. I 180.

majestic height, receding to its interminable length, broken by its stately divisions, with its countless chapels, and its long cloister, with its succession of concentric arches. What space for endless variety, if not for change of scene! How effective the light and shade, even by daylight; how much more so heightened by the command of an infinity of lamps, torches, tapers, now pouring their full effulgence on one majestic object, now showing rather than enlightening the deep gloom! How grand the music, either pervading the whole space with its rolling volumes of sound, or accompanying some solemn or tender monologue! If it may be said without offence, the Company was already enrolled, to a certain degree practised, in the dramatic art; they were used to enforce their words by significant gesture, by movement, by dress. That which was considered the great leap in the Greek drama, the introduction of the second actor, was already done: different parts of the service were assigned to priest, or humbler deacon. The antiphonal chant was the choir breaking into two responsive parts, into dialogue. There were those who recited the principal parts; and, besides them the choir of men or of boys, in the convent of females and young girls; acolyths, mutes without number. Take, as an illustration of the effect of these dramas in their simple form, the *Massacre of the Innocents*.* It opens with a procession of Innocents, doubtless children in white robes, who march in long lines, rejoicing, through the long cloister of the Monastery, and chanting, "How glorious

* Published by Mr. Wright—Early of general access. But in truth the *Mysteries*, London, 1838. Several Poem, the *Mystery* itself, forms a very Latin *Mysteries* have been published in subordinate part of these representations. Paris, but only a small number of copies by Bibliographical Societies, and so not

is Thy Kingdom! Send down, O God, Thy Lamb." The Lamb immediately appears; a man, with a banner, bearing the Lamb, takes his place at their head, leading them up and down, in long gleaming procession. Herod (doubtless clad in all the splendour of barbaric and Oriental attire) is seated on his throne. A squire appears, hands him his sceptre, chanting, "On the throne of David." In the mean time, an Angel alights upon the manger, singing, "Joseph, Joseph, Joseph, thou son of David;" and reciting the verse of the Gospel commanding the flight into Egypt, "Weep not, O Egypt." His armour-bearer informs Herod of the departure of the Wise Men: he bursts out into wrath. While he is raging, the children are still following the steps of the Lamb, and sweetly chanting.^o Herod delivers the fatal sword to his armour-bearer. The Lamb is silently withdrawn; the children remain, in their fearless innocence, singing, "Hail, Lamb of God! O hail!" The mothers entreat mercy. An Angel descends while the slain children are dying, while they lie dead: "Ye who dwell in the dust, awake and cry aloud!" The Innocents answer: "Why, O God, dost thou not defend us from bloodshed?" The Angel chants: "Wait but a little time till your number is full." Then enters Rachel, with two women comforting her: their musical dialogue is simple, wild, pathetic.^p

"Agno qui sancto pro nobis mortificato,
Splendorem patris, splendorem virgini-
tatis,
Offerimus Christo, sub signo numinis
isto"

^p After her first lament they reply:—

Noli, Virgo Rachel, noli, dulcissima mater,
Pro nece parvorum fletus retinere do-
lorum,

Si quæ tristis exulta quæ lacrimaria,
Namque tui nati vivunt super astra
beati"

RACHEL *dolens.*

"Heu! heu! heu!"

Quomodo gaudebo, dum mortua membra
videbo!

Dum sic commota fuero per viscera tota!

Me faciunt verè pueri sine fine dolere!

O dolor, o patrum amutataque gaudia ma-
trùm!

Ad lugubres luctus lacrimarum fundite
fluctus,

Judeæ florem patriæ lacrimando dolorem!"

After some more verses the consolations

As they lead off the sad mother, an Angel, hovering above, sings the antiphone, "Suffer little children to come unto me." At the voice of the Angel all the children enter the choir, and take up their triumphant song. Herod disappears; Archelaus is on his throne. The Angel summons Joseph and the Virgin from Egypt. Joseph breaks out into a hymn to the Virgin. The cantor of the Church intones the *Te Deum*; the whole Church rings with the august harmony.

I have chosen this brief and simple episode, as it were, in the Gospel, to show in what spirit, with what aim, and doubtless with what wonderful effect, these sacred representations were introduced in the Middle Ages.¹ But there was no event, however solemn and

end:—

"Numquid fiendus est iste
Qui regnum possidet celestis!
Quique prece frequente
Miseris fatribus
Apu'd Deum auxiliatur."

Was Rachel represented by a male or a female? A Nun deploring the loss of her children had been somewhat incongruous: Did the Monks and Nuns ever join their companies? In one stage direction it appears the women were personated by men. "*Primum procedunt tres fratres preparati et vestiti in similitudinem trium Mariaum*"—*Mysterium Resurrectionis*, quoted by M. Onesime de Roy, *Mystères*, p. 4.

"Gaude, gaude, gaude—
Maria Virgo, cunctas hereses," &c

¹ A recent publication of the great Thuringian Mystery of the Wise and Foolish Virgins (Halle, 1855), deserves especial notice. Not only is this Mystery (performed at Eisenach, A.D. 1322, not in a Church, but in an open space adjoining), remarkable for its poetic beauty, for the mixture, as it

seems, of Latin Responsives and Sequences, with the chief passages in the dialect of Thuringia; but as having caused the death of Frederick the Joyous (Friedrich der Freudige), Landgrave of Thuringia. The characters are the Saviour, the Virgin Mary, a Choir of Angels, the Wise and Foolish Virgins. There seems to have been a representation, at least, of the opening of hell, into which Lucifer and Beelzebub drag down the miserable Foolish Virgins, shrieking "Woe, woe!" as in a Greek tragedy. But the most remarkable part of this remarkable Poem is, that Frederick the Joyous is not struck to death by his compassion for the Foolish Virgins, or by his horror at their fate: but for his wrath and indignation, that the intercessory prayers of the Blessed Virgin in their favour are ineffectual, and do not at once prevail with her inexorable Son. This wrath and indignation in a few days brought on an apoplectic seizure, under which Frederick lingered, and died in two or three years

appalling, up to the Passion, the Resurrection, the Ascension, which was not in like manner wrought into action, and preached in this impressive way to awe-struck crowds. Legend, like the Gospels, lent itself to the same purpose: instead of being read, it was thrown into a stirring representation, and so offered to spectators as well as to hearers. When all were believers (for those who had not the belief of faith and love, had that of awe and fear), these spectacles no doubt tended most powerfully to kindle and keep alive the religious interest; to stamp upon the hearts and souls of men the sublime truths, as well as the pious fictions of religion. What remains, the dry skeleton of these Latin mysteries, can give no notion of what they were when alive; when alive, with all their august, impressive, enthralling accessories, and their simple, unreasoning, but profoundly-agitated hearers. The higher truths, as well as the more hallowed events of our religion, have in our days retired into the reverential depths of men's hearts and souls: they are to be awfully spoken, not, what would now be thought too familiarly, brought before our eyes. Christian tragedy, therefore, could only exist in this early initiatory form. The older Sacred history might endure to be poeticised in a dramatic form, as in the 'Samson Agonistes'; it might even, under certain circumstances, submit to public representation, as in the Esther and Athalie of Racine, and the Saul of Alfieri. A martyrdom like that of Polyeucte might furnish noble situations. But the history of the Redeemer, the events on which are founded the solemn mysteries of our religion, must be realised only, as it were, behind the veil; they will endure no alteration, no amplification, not the slightest change of form or word: with

them as with the future world, all is an object of "faith, not of sight."

* Since the publication of this work I have had the great good fortune to be present at the performance of the last of the ancient mysteries, which still lingers in Europe, the Passion Spiel, by the peasants of the Ammergau. No one who has not actually seen such a representation can fully and justly imagine the character and influence of these Mediæval plays. During my early life I have seen the drama in all its forms, as exhibited in the most splendid theatres of Europe. I have never witnessed a performance more striking from its scenic effect: the richness and harmony of the decorations and dresses, brilliant and blended in their colours as in an old Italian picture (by Gentile da Fabriano), the music, though this was of a modern cast (much was chanted by a chorus or semichorus alternating, as on the Greek stage), and the general sustained interest and impressiveness of the whole. There was nothing, I think, which could offend the most sensitive religiousness. All was serious, solemn, I may say devout, actors and audience were equally in earnest. The Saviour himself was represented with a quiet gentle dignity, admirably contrasting with the wild life and tumult, the stern haughty demeanour of the Pharisees and rulers in their secret plottings and solemn council (the Sanhedrin,) and the frantic agitation of the Jewish people. Even in the most perilous passages—the washing the feet of the disciples—there was no departure from the commanding repose of the Master. The

one or two comic touches (no doubt the coarser jests and rude pleasantries have been refined away by the greater fastidiousness of modern manners),—the greedy grasping of Judas after the pieces of silver, the eager quarrelling of the Roman soldiers, throwing dice for the seamless coat, did not disturb the general grave impressiveness, but rather gave a certain reality to the scene. Legend, too, had entirely dropped away, it was the evangelic history cast, with no mean skill, into a dramatic form. I never passed a day (it lasted from 7 in the morning till 3 in the afternoon,) in more absorbed and unwearied attention. The theatre was not roofed over by human hands, but with the bright blue sky above, at the bottom of a green valley, flanked by picturesque mountains, which closed in the remoter distance. And to crown the whole, on that occasion, the day, which had been bright, gradually darkened; the clouds in their thick heavy masses rolled slowly down the mountain sides, looming blacker and blacker, till just at the moment of the Crucifixion, the storm—the thunderstorm—broke, in awful grandeur. It disturbed, but did not close the drama; there was some confusion, especially among the audience, who were most exposed (we were under partial shelter). But the end, if hurried, was still grave, serious, and conscientiously carried on to the close, the Resurrection, and the appearance of the Lord to the Disciples.

I was assured that the moral and religious effect on the peasants them-

The Abbess of a German convent made a more extraordinary attempt to compel the dramatic art into the service of Latin Christianity. The motive of Hroswitha, declared by herself, is not less strange than her design.* It was to wean the age (as far as we can judge, the age included the female sex—it included nuns, even the nuns of her own rigid order) from the fatal admiration of the licentious comedy of Rome.† “There are persons,” writes the saintly recluse, “who prefer the vanity of heathen books to the Sacred Scriptures, and beguiled by the charms of the language, are constantly reading the dangerous fictions of Terence, and defile their souls with the knowledge of wicked actions.” There is a simplicity almost incredible, but, from its incredibility, showing its perfect simplicity, in Hroswitha’s description not only of her motives but of her difficulties. The holy poetess blushes to think that she too must dwell on the detestable madness of unlawful love, and the fatally tender conversations of lovers. If however she had listened to the voice of modesty, she could not have shown the triumph of divine Grace, as of course Grace in every case obtains its signal triumph. Each of the comedies, instead of its usual close, a marriage, ends with the virgin or the penitent taking the vow of holy celibacy. But in the slender plots the future saints are exposed to trials which it must have been difficult to represent, even to describe, with common decency. Two relate to adventures in which

selves was excellent. Of the audience I could judge, and it was an audience gathered from all quarters, many more than could obtain accommodation. No one (the preparations last for a year or two) is permitted to appear, even in the chorus, unless of unimpeachable

character.

* These plays have been recently edited and translated into French with great care by M. Magnin.—*Théâtre de Hroswitha* Paris, 1843.

† Hroswitha wrote also a long poem in hexameters, *Panegyria Ofdonum*.

holy hermits set forth in the disguise of amorous youths, to reclaim fallen damsels, literally from the life of a brothel, and bear them off in triumph, but not without resistance, from their sinful calling. Of course the penitents become the holiest of nuns. And the curious part of the whole seems to be that these plays on such much more than dubious subjects should not only have been written by a pious abbess, but were acted in the convent, possibly in the chapel of the convent. This is manifest from the stage directions, the reference to stage machinery, the appearance and disappearance of the actors. And nuns, perhaps young nuns, had to personate females whose lives and experiences were certainly most remote from convent discipline." The plays are written in prose, probably because in those days the verse of Terence was thought to be prose: they are slight, but not without elegance of style derived, it should seem, from the study of that perilously popular author, whom they were intended to supersede. There are some strange patches of scholastic pedantry, a long scene on the theory of music, another on the mystery of numbers, with some touches of buffoonery, strange enough, if acted by nuns before nuns, more strange if acted by others, or before a less select audience, in a convent. A wicked heathen, who is rushing to commit violence on some Christian virgins, is, like Ajax, judicially blinded, sets to kissing the pots and pans, and comes out with his face begrimed with black, no doubt to the infinite merriment of all present. The theatre of Hroswitha is indeed a most curious monument of the times.

* See note of M. Magnin (p. 457), in answer to Price, the editor of Warton, i. 28. M. Magnin has studied with great industry the origin of the Theatre in Europe.

No wonder that the severer Churchmen took alarm, and that Popes and Councils denounced these theatric performances, which, if they began in reverent sanctity, soon got beyond the bounds not merely of reverence, but of decency. But, like other abuses, the reiteration of the prohibition shows the inveterate obstinacy and the perpetual renewal of the forbidden practice.* The rapid and general growth of the vernacular Mysteries, rather than the inhibition of Pope and Council, drove out the graver and more serious Latin Mysteries, not merely in Teutonic countries—in England and Germany—but in France, perhaps in Italy.†

Latin, still to a certain extent the vernacular language of the Church and of the cloister, did not confine itself to the grave epic, the hymn, or the Mystery which sprang out of the hymn. The cloisters had their poetry, disguised in Latin to the common ear, and often needing that disguise. Among the most curious, original, and lively of the monkish Latin poems, are those least in harmony with their cold ascetic discipline. Anacreontics and satires sound strangely, though intermingled with moral poems of the same cast, among the

* The prohibitions show that the ancient use of masks was continued. — “Interdum ludi fiunt in ecclesiis theatrales, et non solum ad ludibrium spectacula introducuntur in eis monstra larvarum, verum etiam in aliquibus festivitibus diaconi, presbyteri ac subdiaconi insanie suae ludibria exercere præsumunt, mandamus, quatenus ne per huiusmodi turpitudinem ecclesie inquinetur honestas, prælibatam ludibriorum consuetudinem, vel potius corruptelam cunctis a vestris ecclesiis extirpare.”—Decret. Greg. Boehmer, *Corpus Juris Canon.* t. ii. fol. 418.—

“Item, non permittant sacerdotes, ludos theatrales fieri in ecclesiâ et alios ludos inhonestos.”—*Conc. Trev.* A. D. 1227. Hartzheim, iii. p. 529. Compare *Synod Dioc. Worm.* A. D. 1316. *Ibid.* iv. p. 258.

† Mary Magdalene was a favourite character in these dramas. Her earlier life was by no means disguised or softened. See the curious extract from a play partly Latin, partly German, published by Dr. Hoffman, *Fundgruben für Geschichte Deutschen Sprache*, quoted by Mr. Wright. *Preface to ‘Early Mysteries.’* London, 1838.

disciples of S. Benedict, S. Bernard, and S. Francis. If the cloister had its chronicle and its hymn-books, it often had its more profane song-book, and the songs which caught the ear seem to have been propagated from convent to convent.^a The well-known convivial song, attributed to Walter de Mapes, was no doubt written in England; it is read in the collection of a Bavarian convent.^b These, and still more, the same satires, are found in every part of Latin Christendom; they rise up in the most unexpected quarters, usually in a kind of ballad metre, to which Latin lends itself with a grotesque incongruity, sometimes with Leonine, sometimes with more accurate rhyme. The Anacreontic Winebibber's song, too well known to be quoted at length, by no means stands alone: the more joyous monks had other Bacchanalian ditties, not without fancy and gay harmony.^b

^a Among the collections which I have read or consulted on this prolific subject are the old one, of Flaccius Illyricus.—Early Mysteries and other Latin Poems, by Thomas Wright, London, 1838.—Lateinische Gedichte des X. und XI. J. II, von Grimm und And Schmeller. Göttingen, 1838.—Poesies Populaires Latines du Moyen Age. Edouard de Meil. Paris, 1847.—Popular Songs.—Poems of Walter de Mapes. Camden Society by Thomas Wright.

^b This Collection, the 'Carmina Benedicto-Burana' (one of the most curious publications of the Stuttgart Union), the Latin Book of Ballads, it may be called, of the Convent of Benedict Buren, contains many love-verses, certainly of no ascetic tendency; and this, among many other of the coarser monkish satires.

^b "Mihl est propositum in tabernâ mori,
Vinum sit appositum morientis ori
Ut dicant cum venerint Angelorum
chori,
Deus sit propitius huic potatori."

"Ave! color vini clari,
Dulcis potus non amari,
Tuâ nos inebriari

Digneris potentiâ
O quam felix creatura,
Quam produxit vitis pura,
Omnis mensa sit secunda
In tuâ presentia

O! quam placens in colore!
O! quam fragrans in odore!
O! quam sapidum in ore!
Dulce lingue vinculum!
Felix venter quem intrabis!
Felix guttur quod rigabis!
Felix os quod tu lavabis!
Et beata labia!

Ergo vinum collaudemus!
Potatores exultemus!
Non potantes confundamus
In æterna supplicia!"

—Wright, p. 129

The Anacreons of the cloister did not sing only of wine: they were not silent on that subject, least appropriate, but seemingly not least congenial, to men under the duty, if not under the vow, of perpetual chastity. From the variety and number of these poems, which appear scattered about as freely and carelessly as the moral poems and satires, it might seem that there was a constant interchange between the troubadour or the minnesinger and the ecclesiastic or the monk. Many of the amatory Latin poems are apparently versions, many the originals of those sung by the popular poets in the vulgar tongue; and there can be no doubt about the authorship of most of the Latin poems. They were the growth as they were the amusement of the cloister. They were written for the monks and clergy, to whom alone they were intelligible. It may suffice in a grave history (which, however, as endeavouring to reveal the whole character of past times, cannot altogether decline such topics) to select one of the most curious, certainly the most graceful of the poems of this class, in its language at least, if not altogether in its moral, inoffensive. It is a kind of Eclogue, in which two fair damsels, Phyllis and Flora, one enamoured of a Knight, the other of a Clerk, contend for the superior merit of their respective lovers, and submit their cause to the decision of the old heathen god, Cupid. The time of this Idyl is a beautiful noon in spring, its scene a flowery meadow, under the cool shade of a pine by a murmuring stream.*

* It is in the *Carmina Benedicto-Burans*, p. 155.—

"Susurrabat modicum
Ventus tempestivus,
locus erat viridi
gramine festivus,

et in ipso gramine
defluebat rivus,
brevis atque garrula
Murmure lascivus

7.

Ut puellis noceat
Calor solis minus
fuit juxta rivulum
Spatiosa pinus

The fair champion of the knight taunts the indolence, the luxuriousness, the black dress and shaven crown of the clerk. She dwells on the valour, noble person, bravery, and glory of the knight: the champion of the clerk, on his wealth, superior dignity, even his learning. His tonsure is his crown of dominion over mankind; he is the sovereign of men: the knight is his vassal.^d After some dispute, they mount, one a fine mule, the other a stately palfrey, and set off, both splendidly accoutred, to the Court of the God of Love. The Paradise of Cupid is described rapidly, but luxuriantly, with much elegance, and a profusion of classical lore.

venustata follis,
late pandens sinus,
nec intrare poterat
calor peregrinus.

8.

Consedere virgines,
Herba sedem dedit,
Phyllis propè rivulum,
Flora longe sedet,
Et dum sedet utraque
ac in sese redit,
amor corda vulnerat
et utramque ladir

9

Amor est interius
latens et occultus,
et corde certissimos
elicit singultus,
pallor genas inficit,
alterantur vultus,
sed in verecundiâ
furor est sepultus."

^d I omit other objections of Phyllis to a clerical lover. This is the worst she can say —

29

"Orbem cum lætificat
hora lucis festæ,
tunc apparet clericus
satis inhoneste,
in tonsurâ capitis
et in atrâ veste
portans testimonium
voluntatis moræ."

To this Flora rejoins —

37

"Non dicas opprobrium
Si cognoscas morem,
vestem nigram clericî
comam breviorē,
habet ista clericus
ad summum honorem,
ut sese significet
omnibus majorem.

38

Universa clerico
Constat esse prona,
et signum imperii
portat in coronâ,
imprat militibus,
et largitur dona,
famulante major est
imperans persona

39

otiosum clericum
semper esse juras,
viles spernit operas
fateor et divas,
sed cuius ejus animus
Evolat ad curas,
cœli vias dividit
et rerum naturas

40

Meus est in purpurâ
tuus in loncâ,
tuus est in proelio
meus in lecticâ,
ubi facta principum
res olit antiqua,
scribit, quarit, cogitat—
totum de amicâ."

Silenus is not forgotten. The award is in favour of the clerk; an award which designates him as fitter for love: and this award is to be valid to all future times.* Few will question whence came this poem: that any layman should be so studious, even in irony, of clerical interests, can scarcely be suspected. If the ballad poetry of a people, or of a time, be the best illustration of their history, this poem, without doubt, is significant enough.

It were unjust not to add that there is a great mass of this rhyme, not less widely dispersed, of much more grave and religious import—poems which embody the truths and precepts of the faith, earnest admonitions on the duties of the clergy, serious expostulations on the sufferings and oppressions of the poor, moral reflections on the times. The monkish poets more especially dwelt on the Crusades. Though there was no great poem on the subject, there were songs of triumph at every success—at every disaster a wild poetic wail.† The Crusade was perpetually preached in verse, half hymn, half war-song.‡

Yet, after all, the strength of these Monk-Poets was

* The close is delightfully naïve. I must only subjoin the award.—

78

“*Frunt et justitiæ,
ventilant vigorem
ventilant et retrahunt
Curie rigorem
secundum scientiam
et secundum morem.*

79.

*ad amorem clericum
dicunt aphorem
Comprobavit curia,
dictionem juris,
et teneri voluit
etiam futura”*

Elizabeth, with very many of the beauties, some of the faults of that age.

† *Carmina Benedicto-Burana*, xlii. to xxviii. —

“*Agedum Christicola,
surge vido
Ne de fide
reputeris frivola,
suda martyr in agone,
spe mercedis et coronæ,
derelictâ Babylone
 pugna
pro cœlesti regione
et ad vitam te compone
 Fugnâ”*

This poem is also in Mr. Wright's English collection, who has subjoined a translation of the time of Queen

§ See xxvi. on the conquests of Saladin; and in Edelstan du Neril's Collection—“*Lætare Hierusalem.”*

in satire. They have more of Juvenal, if not of his majestic march and censorial severity, of his pitilessness, of his bitterness, it may be said of his truculency, than of Catullus, Terence, or Horace. The invectives against Rome, against her pride, avarice, venality—against Popes and Cardinals—against the Hierarchy, its pomp, its luxury—against the warlike habits of the Prelates, the neglect of their holy duties—even against the Monks—put to the test their rude nerve and vigour; and these poems in the same or in similar strain turn up out of the convent libraries in many parts of Germany, in France, in England, in every country beyond the Alps (Italy mostly expressed her Antipapal passions in other ways). They are of all ages; they have the merit that they are the outpourings of overburthened hearts, and are not the frigid and artificial works of mechanics in Latin verse; they are genial even in their ribaldry; they are written by men in earnest, bitterly deploring or mercilessly scourging the abuses of the Church. Whether from righteous indignation or malignity, from moral earnestness or jealousy and hatred of authority, whether its inspiration was holy and generous or sordid and coarse, or, as in most human things, from mingling and contradictory passions, the monkish Latin satire maintained its unretracted protest against the Church. The Satirists impersonated a kind of bold reckless antagonist against Rome and the hierarchy,^b confounding

^b Mr. Wright has abundantly proved this in his preface to the poems of Walter de Mapes. (Intro p ix, &c.) He is equally successful, according to my judgement, in depriving of the glory, or relieving from the reproach, of these compositions the celebrated Walter de Mapes. De Mapes had a feud with the Cistercians or White Monks, and did not spare his enemies; but he was not Goliath. Under that name ranked bards of a considerable period, and in my opinion of more than one country. Mr. Wright is not so satisfactory in claiming them all for England, one poem seems to

together in their Goliath, as Rabelais in later days, solemnity and buffoonery, pedantic learning and vulgar humour, a profound respect for sacred things and freedom of invective against sacred persons. The Goliards became a kind of monkish rhapsodists, the companions and rivals of the Jongleurs (the reciters of the merry and licentious *fabliaux*) ; Goliardery was a recognised kind of mediæval poetry. Goliath has his *Metamorphoses*, his *Apocalypse*, his terrible *Preachment*, his *Confession*,ⁱ his *Complaint* to the Pope, his *Address* to the Roman Court, to the impious Prelates, to the Priests of Christ, to the Prelates of France ; and, finally, a *Satire* on women, that is, against taking a wife, instinct with true monastic rigour and coarseness. Towards the Pope himself—though Goliath scruples not to arraign his avarice, to treat his Bulls with scorn—there is yet some awe.^k I doubt if

show itself written in Pavia. Compare the copy of the *Confession* in Wright (p. 71), and the *Carmina Benedicto-Burana* (p. 57)

ⁱ The *Confession* contains the famous drinking song. The close is entirely different, and shows the sort of common property in the poems. Both poems mention Pavia. Yet the English copy names the Bishop of Coventry, the German “the Elect of Cologne,” as Diocesan.

^k I have already quoted the lines in one of those songs, in which he derives the word *Papa*, by apocope, from *pagare*, “pay, pay.” In his complaint to the Pope, Goliath is a poor clerical scholar poet :—

Turpe tibi, pastor bone,
Si divina lectione
Spretâ flam laicus,
Vel absolve clericatu,
Vel fac ut in cleri statu,
Perseverem clericus.
Dulcis erit mihi status
Si prebenda maneratus

Redditu vel allo,
Vivam licet non habunde,
Saltem mihi detur unde,
Studeam de proprio”

From a very different author in a different tone is the following.—

1

“ Dic Xti veritas,
Dic cara caritas,
Dic rara charitas,
Ubi nunc habitas ?
Aut in valle Visionis,
Aut in throno Pharaonis,
Aut in alto cum Nerone,
Aut in antro cum Simone,
Vel in viscera scorpæ
Cum Moyse plorante,
Vel in domo Romuleæ
Cum bullâ fulminante.

2

Bulla fulminante
Sub iudice tonante
Reo appellante,
Sententia gravante,
Veritas opprimitur,
Distrahitur et venditur
Iustitia præstante,
Itur et recurritur
Ad curiam, nec ante
Quis quid consequatur
Donec exiit
Ultimo quadrante

the Roman Pontiff was yet to the fiercest of these poets, as to the Albigenians and to the Spiritual Franciscans, Antichrist. The Cardinals meet with less respect; that excessive and proverbial venality, which we have heard denounced century after century, is confirmed, if it needed confirmation, by these unsparing satirists.^m

The Bishops are still arraigned for their martial habits,ⁿ their neglect of their sacred functions, their pride, their venality, their tyranny. Some were married: this and universal concubinage is the burthen of the complaint against the Clergy.^o The Satirists are stern monks to others, however their amatory poetry may tell against

3

"Respondit Caritas
Homo quid dubitas,
Quid me sollicitas?
Non sum quod usitas,
Nec in euro nec in austro,
Nec in foro, nec in clau-tro,
Nec in bysso, nec in cuculla,
Nec in bello, nec in bulla
De Jericho sum veniens
Ploro cum sauciato,
Quem duplex Levi transiens
Non astitit grabato "
Carmina Benedicto Burana, p. 51

One of these stanzas is contained in a long poem made up very uncritically from a number of small poems (in Flaccius Illyricus, p. 29, &c.) on Papal absolution and indulgences:—

"Nos peccata relaxamus
Absolutos collocamus
Sedibus ethericis,
Nos habemus nostras leges,
Alligantes omnes reges
In manicis aureis "

Carmin. B. B., p. 17

^m See the Poem de Rumâ Romæ Wright, p. 217. *Carmina B. B.* 16.—

3.

"Vidi vidi caput mundi
Instar maris et profundum
Vorax guttur Siculi;
Ibi mundi bithalassus,
Ibi sorbet aurum Crassus
et argentum sæculi.

ibi pugna galearum
et concursus piratarum
id est cardinalium

25.

Cardinales ut prædixi,
Novo jure Crucifixi
Vendunt pitrimonium,
Petrus foris, intus Nero,
intus lupa, foris vero
sicut agni ovium "

This is but a sample of these Poems.

ⁿ "Episcopi cornuti
Conticere muti,
ad prædâ sunt parati
et indecenter coronati
pro virgâ ferunt lanceam,
pro intulâ galeam,
clipeum pro stola,
(hæc mortis erit mola)
loricam pro albâ,
hæc occasio calvâ,
pellem pro humerali,
pro ritu seculari
Sicut fortes incedunt,
et a Deo discedunt," &c.

Carmin. B. Burana, p. 15. Compare Wright, *Sermo Golæ ad Prælatos*, p. 48

^o "Nec tu participes
Conjugiæ vitæ vitio
Namque multos invenio
qui sunt hujus participes,
ecclesiarum principes "

themselves.^p The Archdeacons' Court is a grievance which seems to have risen to a great height in England. Henry II. we have heard bitterly complaining against its abuses: it levied enormous sums on the vices of the people, which it did not restrain.^q All are bitterly reproached with the sale of the services of the Church, even of the Sacraments.^r The monks do not escape; but it seems rather a quarrel of different Orders than a general denunciation of all.

The terrible preachment of Goliath on the Last Judgement ought not to be passed by. The rude doggerel rises almost to sublimity as it summons all alike before the Judge, clerk as well as layman; and sternly cuts off all reply, all legal quibble, all appeal to the throne of St. Peter. The rich will find no favour before Him who is the Judge, the Author of the sentence, the Witness. God the Judge will judge Judges, he will judge Kings; be

P "O sacerdos hæc responde
qui frequenter et jocunde
cum uxore dormis, unde
Mane surgens, missam dicis,
corpus Christi benedixis,
post amplexus concubinx
minus quam tu peccatrixis

* * * * *
Miror ego, miror plane
quod sub illo lateat pane
Corpus Christi, quod prophane
Tractat manus illa mane,
Miror, nisi tu mireris,
quod a terra non sorberis,
cumque sæpe prohiberis
literare non vereris"

—Wright, pp. 49, 50.

^q Compare in Wright the three curious poems, *De Concubinis Sacerdotum*, *Consultatio Sacerdotum*, *Convocatio Sacerdotum*, pp. 171, 174, 180

^r "Ecce capitulum legi de moribus
Archidiaconi, qui suis vicibus
quicquid a præsulis evadit manibus
Capit et lacerat rostris et unguibus.

Hic plenus oculis sedet ad synodum
Lynx ad insidias, Janus ad commodum,

Argus ad animi scelus omnimodum,
Et Polyphemus est ad artis metodum.

Doctorum statuit decreta millium,
Quotum est pondus supra jus jurlum,
Unum qui solverit, reus est omnium,
Nisi resolverit prius marsupium

* * * * *
Ecclesiastica jura venalia,
facit propatulo, sed ventalia
cum venum dederit, vocat a ventis,
quam non inveniens venit Ecclesia."

—Wright, p. 9

^r "Jacet ordo clericalis
in respectu laicalis,
spina Christi fit mercaialis
generosa generalis
Veneunt altaria,
venit eucharistia,
cum sit nugatoria
gratia venalis"

—*Carmin. B. Burana*, p. 41

This and the following poems dwell on simony of all kinds. See the Poem *De Gravis Monachis*, Wright, p. 54. *De Clarevallensibus et Cluniacensibus*, ib. f. 237. *De Malis Monachorum*, 187.

he Bishop or Cardinal, the sinner will be plunged into the stench of hell. There will be no fee for Bull or Notary, no bribe to Chamberlain or Porter. Prelates will be delivered up to the most savage tormentors; their life will be eternal death.*

History throughout these centuries bore on its face that it was the work not of the statesman or the warrior, unless of the Crusader or of the warrior Bishop, it was that of the Monk. It is universally Latin during the earlier period: at first indeed in Italy, in Latin which may seem breaking down into an initiatory Romance or Italian. Erchempert and the Salernitan Chronicle, and some others of that period, are barbarous beyond later barbarism. When history became almost the exclusive property of the Monks, it was written in their Latin, which at least was a kind of Latin. Most of the earlier Chronicles were intended each to be a universal history for the instruction of the brotherhood. Hence monkish historians rarely begin lower than the Creation or the Deluge. According to the erudition of the writer, the historian is more or less diffuse on the pre-Christian History, and that of the Cæsars. As the writers approach their own age, the brief Chronicle expands and registers at first all that relates to the institution and interests of the monastery, its

"Quid dicturi miseri sumus ante thronum,
Ante tantum iudicem, ante summum
bonum,

Tunc non erit aliquis locus hic præ-
conum,

Cum nostrarum præmia reddet ac-
tionum

Cum perventum fuerit examen veri,
Ante thronum stabimus iudicis severi,
Nec erit distinctio laici vel clerici.

Nulla nos exceptio poterit tueri

Hic non erit illicitum quicquam alle-
gare,

Neque jus refloere, neque replicare,
Nec ad Apostolicam sedem appellare,

Reus tunc damnabitur, nec dicetur
quare

Cogitate divites qui vel quales estis,
Quod in hoc iudicio facere potestis;

Tunc non erit aliquis locus hic Digestis
Idem erit Deus hic iudex, autor, testis

Judicabit iudices iudex generalis,
Nihil ibi proderit dignitas regalis,

Sed factorem sentiet poenæ gehennalis,
Sive sit Episcopus, sive Cardinalis,

Nihil ibi dabitur bullæ vel scriptori,
Nihil camerario, nihil janitori;

Sed dabuntur præsules pessimo tortori
Quibus erit vivere sine fine mori."

—Wright, p. 52.

founders and benefactors, their lives and miracles, and condescends to admit the affairs of the times in due subordination. But there is still something of the legend. Gradually, however, the actual world widens before the eyes of the monkish historian; present events in which he, his monastery, at all events the Church, are mingled, assume their proper magnitude. The universal-history preface is sometimes actually discarded, or shrinks into a narrower compass. He is still a chronicler; he still, as it were, surveys everything from within his convent-walls; but the world has entered within his convent. The Monk has become a Churchman, or the Churchman, retired into the monastery, become almost an historian. The high name of Historian, indeed, cannot be claimed for any mediæval Latin writer; but as chroniclers of their own times (their value is entirely confined to their own times; on the past they are merely servile copyists of the same traditions) they are invaluable.¹ Their very faults are their merits. They are full of, and therefore represent the passions, the opinions, the prejudices, the partialities, the animosities of their days. Every kingdom, every city in Italy, in Germany every province, has its chronicler.² In England, though the residence of the chronicler, the order to which he belongs, and the office which he occupies, are usually manifest, it is more often the affairs of the realm which occupy the annals. France, or rather the Franco-Teutonic Empire, began with better promise; Eginhard has received his due praise; the Biographers of Louis the Pious, Thegan, and the Astronomer, may be read with pleasure as with instruction: Nithard falls off. In England, Matthew Paris,

¹ *E.g.* in the Saxon Chronicle.

² To characterise the Chronicles, even those of the different nations, would be an endless labour.

or rather perhaps Roger *of Wendover, takes a wider range: he travels beyond the limits of England; he almost aspires to be a chronicler of Christendom. The histories of the Crusades are lively, picturesque, according as they come directly from the Crusaders themselves. Perhaps the most elaborate, William of Tyre, being a compilation, is least valuable and least effective. Lambert of Hertzfield (vulgarly of Aschaffenburg) in my judgment occupies, if not the first, nearly the first place, in mediæval history. He has risen at least towards the grandeur of his subject. Our own chroniclers, Westminster, Knighton, and Walsingham, may vie with the best of other countries. As to their Latinity, Saxo Grammaticus, the Sicilian Ugo Falcandus, command a nobler and purer style.

Yet after all the Chronicle must, to attain its perfection, speak in the fresh picturesqueness, the freedom, and the energy of the new vernacular languages. The Latin, though in such universal use, is a foreign, a conventional tongue even among Churchmen and in the monastery. Statesmen, men of business, men of war, must begin to relate the affairs of States, the adventures and events of war. For the perfect Chronicle we must await Villehardouin, Joinville, Froissart. Villani is more than a chronicler; he is approaching to the historian.

CHAPTER V.

Christian Letters in the New Languages of Europe.

CHRISTIANITY, indeed, must await, and not in history alone, the creation, growth, perfection of new languages, before she can become the parent of genuine Christian letters and arts—of letters and arts which will maintain permanent influence and ascendancy over the mind of man. But the abrogation of the Latin as the exclusive language of Christian letters and arts must be inevitably and eventually the doom of Latin Christianity. Latin must recede more and more into a learned language understood by the few. It may linger in the religious service of all who adhere to the Church of Rome, not absolutely unintelligible to those whose language is of Latin descent, and among them with a kind of mysterious and venerable indistinctness not unfavourable to religious awe. The Latin is a congenial part of that imposing ritual system which speaks by symbolic gestures and genuflexions, by dress, by music, by skilful interchange of light and darkness, by all which elevates, soothes, rules the mind through the outward senses. A too familiar Liturgy and Hymnology might disturb this vague, unreasoning reverence. With the coarsest and most vulgar Priesthood these services cannot become altogether vulgar; and except to the strongest or most practical minds, the clear and the definite are often fatal to the faith. Yet for popular instruction either from the Pulpit or through the Printing Press, Christianity

must descend, as it does descend, to the popular language. In this respect Latin has long discharged its mission—it is antiquated and obsolete.

But while the modern languages of Europe survive; and we can hardly doubt the vitality of French, Italian, Spanish, German, and our own English (now the vernacular tongue of North America and Australia, that too of government and of commerce in vast regions of Africa and Asia), the great Christian writers, Dante, Ariosto, Tasso, Calderon; Pascal, Bossuet, and the pulpit orators of France, with Corneille and Racine; the German Bible of Luther, the English Bible, Shakspeare, Milton, Schiller, some of our great divines, Hooker, Jeremy Taylor, will only die with the languages in which they wrote. Descartes, Bacon, Locke, Reid, Kant, will not share the fate of the scholastic philosophers, till the French, English, and German are to new races of men what mediæval Latin is to us. And religion must speak to mankind in the dominant languages of mankind.

It might seem indeed that in the earliest Latin as distinguished from the Teutonic languages, the Romance in its various forms, Sicilian, Italian, Catalan, Provençal, poetry, the primal form of vernacular literature was disposed to break loose from Latin Christianity, from hierarchical unity, even from religion. The Clergy in general remained secluded or shrunk back into the learned Latin; the popular poetry, even the popular prose, became profane, unreligious, at length in some part irreligious. The Clergy, as has been seen, for their own use and amusement, transmuted much of the popular poetry into Latin, but it ceased thereby to be popular except among themselves. They shut themselves up from the awakening and stirring world in their sanctity, their authority, their learning, their wealth. The

Jongleurs, the Trouvères, the Troubadours, became in a certain sense the popular teachers; the Bards and the sacerdotal order became separate, hostile to each other. The Clergy might seem almost content with the intellect of man; they left the imagination, except so far as it was kept enthralled by the religious ceremonial, to others. Perhaps the Mysteries, even the early Latin Mysteries, chiefly arose out of the consciousness of this loss of influence; it was a strong effort to recover that which was gliding from their grasp. Some priests were Troubadours, not much to the elevation of their priestly character; Troubadours became priests, but it was by the renunciation of their poetic fame; and by setting themselves as far asunder as possible from their former brethren. Fulk of Marseilles^a became the furious persecutor of those who had listened with rapture to his poetry. Later one of the most famous of the schoolmen was said to have been a Troubadour.^b

Chivalry alone, so far as chivalry was Christian, held poetry to the service of Christianity, and even of the Church; but this was chiefly among the Trouvères of Northern France or the Langue d'Oïl. The Provençal poetry of the South, the cradle of modern song, contains some noble bursts of the Crusading religious sentiment; it is Christian, if chivalry be Christian, in tone and thought. But, in general, in the castle courts of the

^a For the history of Fulk of Marseilles, whose poetic fame endured to the days of Dante, see back, vol v p 412

^b No less a person than William Duand, the great general of the Pope, the great Ecclesiastical Legist, almost the last great Schoolman, the author of the *Speculum* and the *Rationale*, is traditionally reported to have been a

Troubadour. A tale is told of him very similar to that of Romeo and Juliet. Conceive Romeo growing up into a High Churchman and a Schoolman!—Ritter, *Christliche Philosophie*, vii. p. 19. The question is examined with fairness and sagacity in the xth vol. of the *Hist. Lit. de la France*, p. 435.

Provençal Princes and Nobles poetry not only set itself above Christian religion, but above Christian morals. The highest Idealism was amatory Platonism, which while it professed religious adoration of woman, degraded her by that adoration. It may be doubted whether it could ever have broken forth from that effeminacy to which it had condemned itself. Grace, perhaps tenderness, was its highest aim; and Poetry soars not above its aim. But this subject has already found its place in our history. In its lower and popular form Provençal poetry, not less immoral, was even more directly anti-hierarchical. It was not heretical, for it had not religion enough to be heretical: religion was left to the heretic. The Fabliau, the Satire, the Tale, or the Song, were the broad and reckless expression of that aversion and contempt into which the Clergy of Southern France had fallen, and tended immeasurably to deepen that aversion and contempt. But it has been sadly shown how the Albigensian war crushed the insurrection of Provençal poetry against Latin letters, together with the insurrection against the Latin hierarchy. The earliest vernacular poetry perished almost without heirs to its fame; its language, which once divided France, sunk into a provincial dialect.^c

Christendom owes to Dante the creation of Italian Poetry, through Italian, of Christian Poetry. It required all the courage, firmness, and prophetic sagacity of Dante to throw aside the inflexible bondage of the established hierarchical Latin of Europe. He had almost yielded and had actually commenced the Divine Comedy in the ancient, it seemed, the universal and eternal language.^d

^c Even in our days Provence has undergone much change. . . poet, and that of no undeserved fame,

^d Compare among other authorities *Journ. de Trévoux*: of course, the language has the valuable essay of Perticari, the

But the Poet had profoundly meditated, and deliberately resolved on his appeal to the Italian mind and heart. Yet even then he had to choose, to a certain extent to form, the pure, vigorous, picturesque, harmonious Italian which was to be intelligible, which was to become native and popular to the universal ear of Italy. He had to create; out of a chaos he had to summon light.^e Every kingdom, every province, every district, almost every city, had its dialect, peculiar, separate, distinct, rude in construction, harsh, in different degrees, in utterance. Dante in his book on Vulgar Eloquence ranges over the whole land,^f rapidly discusses the Sicilian and Apulian,

son-in-law of Monti (in Monti, *Proposta di Alcune Correzioni, &c. al Vocab. della Crusca*, v. II. pte II) Perticari quotes the very curious letter of the Monk Ilario to Ugucione della Faggiuola. To this Monk the wandering Dante showed part of his great work. The Monk was astounded to see that it was written in the vulgar tongue. "Io mi stupiva ch' egli avesse cantato in quella lingua, perchè pareva cosa difficile, anzi da non credere, ch' quegli altissimi intendimenti si potessero significare per parole di vulgo; ne mi pareva convenne ch' una tanta e sì degna scienza fosse vestita a quel modo così plebeo." Dante replied, that so he himself had originally thought. He had once begun his poem in Latin, and these were the lines—

"Ultima regna canam, fluído contermina mundo,
Spiritus quæ lata patent, quæ præmia solvant
Pro meritis cuiusque suis"

But he had thrown aside that lyre, "ed un'altra ne temperai conveniente all' orecchio de' moderni." The Monk concludes "molte altre cose con sublimi

affetti soggiunse" (p. 328). Perticari quotes another remonstrance addressed to the poet by Giovanni di Virgilio da Cesena, closing with these words. "Se ti giova la fama, non sù contento a sì brevi confini, nè all'esser fatto glorioso dal vil giudicio del volgo" (p. 330). Conceive the Divine Comedy stranded, with Petrarch's *Africa*, high on the barren and unapproachable shore of ecclesiastical Latin.

* "Poesia nel libro ch' ei nomina della Vulgar Eloquenza, cominciò ad illustrare l' idioma poetico ch' egli creava." See the excellent observations on writing in a dead language, in Foscolo, *Discorso sul Testo di Dante*, p. 250.

^f I can have no doubt whatever of the authenticity of the *De Vulgar Eloquentia*, contested because Dante threw aside the vulgar Tuscan or Florentine as disdainfully as the rest, and even preferred the Bolognese. To a stranger it is extraordinary that such an Essay as that of Perticari should be necessary to vindicate Dante from the charge of ingratitude and want of patriotism, even of hatred of Florence

the Roman and Spoletan, the Tuscan and Genoese, the Romagnole and the Lombard, the Trevisan and Venetian, the Istrian and Friulian; all are coarse, harsh, mutilated, defective. The least bad is the vulgar Bolognese. But high above all this discord he seems to discern, and to receive into his prophetic ears, a noble and pure language, common to all, peculiar to none, a language which he describes as *Illustrious*, *Cardinal*, *Courtly*, if we may use our phrase, *Parliamentary*, that is, of the palace, the courts of justice, and of public affairs.* No doubt it sprung, though its affiliation is by no means clear, out of the universal degenerate Latin, the rustic tongue, common not in Italy alone, but in all the provinces of the Roman Empire.^b Its first domicile was the splendid Sicilian and Apulian Court of Frederick II., and of his accomplished son. It has been boldly said, that it was part of Frederick's magnificent design of universal empire: he would make Italy one

(Florence which had exiled him), because Florentine vanity was wounded by what they conceived injustice to pure Tuscan. See also the Preface to the *De Vulgari Eloquentia* in the excellent edition of the *Opere Minori*, by Fraticelli. Florence, 1833.

* "Itaque adepti quod querebamus, dicimus, *Illustre*, *Cardinale*, *Aulicum* et *Curiale* *Vulgate* in *Latino*, quod omnis *Latina* civitatis est et nullius esse videtur, et quo incipit *Vulgaria* *Latino* mensurantur, ponderantur et comparantur."—Lib. i. cxvi.

^b Petricari has some ingenious observations on the German conquests, and the formation of Italian from the Latin. The German war-terms were alone admitted into the language. But his theory of the origin of the Romance

out of the ecclesiastical Latin, and still more his notion that the ecclesiastical Latin was the old *lingua rustica*, rests on two bold and unproved assumptions, though doubtless there is some truth in both. "La fina industria degli Ecclesiastici, che in Romano spiegando la dottrina Evangelica, ed in Romano scrivendo i fatti della chiesa cattolica, facevano del Romano il linguaggio pontifical e Cattolica cioè *universale*. Ma quella non era più il Latino illustre, non l'usato da Lucrezio e da Tulio, non l'udito nel Senato e nella Corte di Cesare; era quel *rustico* che parlava l'intero volgo dell'Europa Latina" (p. 92). Still I know no treatise on the origin of the Italian language more full, more suggestive, or more valuable than Petricari's.

realm, under one king, and speaking one language.¹ Dante does homage to the noble character of Frederick II.² Sicily was the birthplace of Italian Poetry. The Sicilian Poems live to bear witness to the truth of Dante's assertion, which might rest on his irrefragable authority alone. The Poems, one even earlier than the Court of Frederick,³ those of Frederick himself, of Pietro della Vigna,⁴ of King Enzo, of King Manfred, with some peculiarities in the formation, orthography, use

¹ "Federigo II espeiava a riunire l'Italia sotto un solo principe, una sola forma di governo, e una sola lingua."—Foscolo sulla lingua Italiana, p. 159. This essay, printed (1850) in the fourth volume of my poor friend's Works, has only just reached me.

² "Quicquid poetantur Itali Sicilianum vocatur . . . Sed hæc fama Trinacriæ terræ, si recte signum ad quod tendit inspicimus, videtur tantum in opprobrium Italorum Principum remansisse qui non heroico more, sed plebeo sequuntur superbiam. Siquidem illustres heroum Fredericus Casar, et bene genitus ejus Manfredus, nobilitatem ac rectitudinem suæ formæ pandentes, donec fortuna permansit, humana secuti sunt, butalia dedignant, propter quod corde nobiles atque gratiarum dotati inhaerere tantorum principum majestati conati sunt. ita quod eorum tempore quicquid excellentes Latini nitebantur, primitus in tantorum Coronatorum aulâ prodibat. Et quia regale solum erat Sicilia, factum est quicquid nostri prædecessores vulgiter protulerunt, Sicilianum vocatur. Quod quidem retinemus et nos, nec posteri nostri permutare valebunt, Racha! Racha! Quid

nunc personat tuba novissimi Frederici? quid tintinnabulum II Caroli? quid cornua Johannis et Azzonis Marchionum potentum? quid aliorum Magnatum tubæ? nisi Venite carnifices! Venite altitriplices! Venite avaritiae sectatores. Sed præstat ad propositum repedare quam fustia loqui."—De Vulgar Eloquentia, l. xii. p. 46. There is a splendid translation of this passage in Dantesque Italian by Foscolo, Discorso, p. 255.

³ See the Rosa fresca olentissima, Foscolo, della Lingua, p. 150.

⁴ "Così ne' versi seguenti non v'è un unico sgrammaticamento de sintassi, nè un modo d'esprimersi inellegante, nè un solo vocabolo che possa parere troppo antico."

"Non dico ch' alla vostra gran bellezza
Orgoglio non convegna e stavi bene,
Che a bella donna orgoglio ben convegna,
Che la mantene in pregio ed in grandezza;
Tropo alterezza e quella che sconviene
Di grande orgoglio mai ben non avvent."
Poeti del 1^{mo} Sec. l. p. 195.
See Foscolo, p. 166.

Peter della Vigna (Peter de Vinca) did not write Sicilian from want of command of Latin, his letters, including many of the State Papers of his master Frederick II, are of much higher Latinity than most of his time.

and sounds of words, are intelligible from one end of the Peninsula to the other.^o The language was echoed and perpetuated, or rather resounded spontaneously, among poets in other districts. This courtly, aristocratical, universal Italian, Dante heard as the conventional dialect in the Courts of the Cæsars,^p in the republics, in the principalities throughout Italy.^q Perhaps Dante, the Italian, the Ghibelline, the assertor of the universal temporal monarchy, dwelt not less fondly in his imagination on this universal and noble Italian language, because it would supersede the Papal and hierarchical Latin; the Latin with the Pope himself, would withdraw into the sanctuary, into the service of the Church, into affairs purely spiritual.

However this might be, to this vehicle of his noble thoughts Dante fearlessly entrusted his poetic immortality, which no poet anticipated with more confident security. While the scholar Petrarch condescended to the vulgar tongue in his amatory poems, which he had still a lurking fear might be but ephemeral, in his

^o See the passages from Frederick II. and King Enzo, Foscolo, p. 165.

^p See, among other instances, the pure Italian quoted from Angelati by Perticari, written at Milan the year before the birth of Dante. Perticari's graceful essay, as far as the earlier Italian poetry may be compared with that of Foscolo, sulla Lingua; the other poets Cino da Pistoia, the Guidos (Foscolo ranks Guido Cavalcanti, Dante's best friend, very high) may be read in a collection printed at Florence, referred to in a former volume. Nor must the prose be forgotten; the history of Matteo Spinelli is good universal Italian. The maritime code of

Amalfi has been recently discovered, in Italian perfectly intelligible in the present day. I owe this information to my accomplished friend Signr. Lacaita.

^q "La lingua ch' ei nomina cortegiana, e della quale ei disputa tuttavia, la sua fantasia vedevola nascere ed ampliarsi per la perpetua residenza de' Cesari in Roma, e fia le repubbliche e le tirannidi, tutte confuse in un solo reame. Di questo ei ti pare certissimo come di legge preordinata dalla Provvidenza e connessa al sistema del' Universo."—Compare quotations, Foscolo, Discorso, p. 254.

Africa and in his Latin verses he laid up, as he fondly thought, an imperishable treasure of fame.* Even Boccaccio, happily for his own glory, followed the example of Dante, in, as he probably supposed, his least enduring work, his gay Decamerone. Yet Boccaccio doubted, towards the close of his life, whether the Divine Comedy had not been more sublime, and therefore destined to a more secure eternity in Latin.*

Thus in Italy, with the Italian language, of which, if he was not absolutely the creator, he was the first who gave it permanent and vital being, arose one of the great poets of the world. There is a vast chasm between the close of Roman and the dawn of Italian letters, between the period at which appeared the last creative work written by transcendent human genius in the Roman language, while yet in its consummate strength and perfection, and the first, in which Italian Poetry and the Italian tongue came forth in their majesty; between the history of Tacitus and the *Divina Comedia*. No one can appreciate more highly than myself (if I may venture to speak of myself), the great works of ecclesiastical Latin, the Vulgate, parts of the Ritual, St. Augustine: yet who can deny that there is

* Compare Petrarck's letter (Épist. Fam. xi. 12), in which he haughtily vindicates himself from all jealousy of Dante. How should he, who is the companion of Virgil and Homer, be jealous of one who enjoys the hoarse applause of taverns and markets? I may add that Mr. Bruce Whyte, in his curious volumes, *Histoire des Langues Romanes*, has given a careful analysis of Petrarck's "Africa," which he has actually read, and discovered in it

some passages of real merit (vol. iii. ch. xl.).

* "Non dico però che se in versi Latini fosse (non mutato il peso delle parole vulgari) ch'egli non fosse molto più artificioso e più sublime: perciòchè molto più arte e nel parlare latino ch'è nel moderno;"—Boccac. Comm. Div. Com. f. f. As if sublimity in poetry consisted in skilful triumph over difficulty. But on the old age of Boccaccio, see Foscolo, p. 213.

barbarism, a yet unreconciled confusion of uncongenial elements, of Orientalism and Occidentalism, in the language? From the time of Trajan, except Claudian, Latin letters are almost exclusively Christian; and Christian letters are Latin, as it were, in a secondary and degenerate form. The new era opens with Dante.

To my mind there is a singular kindred and similitude between the last great Latin, and the first great Italian writer, though one is a poet, the other a historian. Tacitus and Dante have the same penetrative truth of observation as to man and the external world of man; the same power of expressing that truth. They have the common gift of flashing a whole train of thought, a vast range of images on the mind by a few brief and pregnant words; the same faculty of giving life to human emotions by natural images, of imparting to natural images, as it were, human life and human sympathies: each has the intuitive judgement of saying just enough; the stern self-restraint which will not say more than enough; the rare talent of compressing a mass of profound thought into an apophthegm; each paints with words, with the fewest possible words, yet the picture lives and speaks. Each has that relentless moral indignation, that awful power of satire which in the historian condemns to an immortality of earthly infamy, in the Christian Poet aggravates that gloomy immortality of this world by ratifying it in the next. Each might seem to embody remorse.¹ Patrician, high, imperial, princely, Papal criminals are compelled to acknowledge the justice of their doom. Each, too,

¹ It is a saying attributed to Talleyrand of Tacitus, "Quand on lit cet homme-là on est au Confessionnal."

writing, one of times just past, of which the influences were strongly felt in the social state and fortunes of Rome: the other of his own, in which he had been actively concerned, throws a personal passion (Dante of course the most) into his judgements and his language, which, whatever may be its effect on their justice, adds wonderfully to their force and reality. Each, too, has a lofty sympathy with good, only that the highest ideal of Tacitus is a death-defying Stoic, or an all-accomplished Roman Proconsul, an Helvidius Thræsea, or an Agricola; that of Dante a suffering, and so purified and beatified Christian saint, or martyr; in Tacitus it is a majestic and virtuous Roman matron, an Agrippina, in Dante an unreal mysterious Beatrice.

Dante is not merely the religious Poet of Latin or mediæval Christianity; in him that mediæval Christianity is summed up as it were, and embodied for perpetuity. The Divine Comedy contains in its sublimest form the whole mythology, and at the same time the quintessence, the living substance, the ultimate conclusions of the Scholastic Theology. The whole course of Legend, the Dæmonology, Angelology, the extra-mundane world, which in the popular belief was vague, fragmentary, incoherent, in Dante, as we have seen, becomes an actual, visible, harmonious system. In Dante heathen images, heathen mythology are blended in the same living reality with those of Latin Christianity, but they are real in the sense of the early Christian Fathers. They are acknowledged as part of the vast hostile Demon world, just as the Angelic Orders, which from Jewish or Oriental tradition obtained their first organisation in the hierarchy of the Areopagite. So, too, the schools of Theology meet in the Poet. Aquinas, it has been said, has nothing more subtle and metaphysical than the

Paradise, only that in Dante single lines, or pregnant stanzas, have the full meaning of pages or chapters of divinity. But though his doctrine is that of Aquinas, Dante has all the fervour and passion of the Mystics; he is Bonaventura as well as St. Thomas.

Dante was in all respects but one, his Ghibellinism, the religious poet of his age, and to many minds not less religious for that exception. He was anti-Papal, but with the fullest reverence for the spiritual supremacy of the successor of St. Peter. To him, as to most religious Imperialists or Ghibellines, to some of the spiritual Franciscans, to a vast host of believers throughout Christendom, the Pope was two distinct personages. One, the temporal, they scrupled not to condemn with the fiercest reprobation, to hate with the bitterest cordiality: Dante damns Pontiffs without fear or remorse. But the other, the Spiritual Pope, was worthy of all awe or reverence; his sacred person must be inviolate; his words, if not infallible, must be heard with the profoundest respect; he is the Vicar of Christ, the representative of God upon earth. With his Ghibelline brethren Dante closed his eyes against the incongruity, the inevitable incongruity, of these two discordant personages meeting in one: the same Boniface is in hell, yet was of such acknowledged sanctity on earth that it was spiritual treason to touch his awful person. The Saints of Dante are the Saints of the Church; on the highest height of wisdom is St. Thomas, on the highest height of holiness, St. Benedict, St. Dominic, St. Francis. To the religious adversaries of the Church he has all the stern remorselessness of an inquisitor. The noble Frederick II., whom we have just heard described as the parent of Italian poetry, the model of a mighty Emperor, the Cæsar of Cæsars, is in hell as an arch-

Dante's Ghibellinism.

heretic, as an atheist." In hell, in the same dreary circle, up to his waist in fire, is the noblest of the Ghibelines, Farinata degli Uberti. In hell for the same sin is the father of his dearest friend and brother poet Guido Cavalcanti. Whatever latent sympathy seems to transpire for Fra Dolcino, he is unrelentingly thrust down to the companionship of Mohammed. The Catholic may not reverse the sentence of the Church.

Petrarch, as an Italian poet, excepting in his Ode to the Virgin, stands almost aloof from the mediæval religion; it is only as a Latin poet, and in his familiar Letters, that he inveighs against the vices, the irreligion of the Court of Avignon. Petrarch.

Boccaccio, the third of this acknowledged Triumvirate, was, on the other hand, in his one great work, unquestionably as regards the dominant religion of his times, its monkhood and hierarchism, the most irreligious, on account of his gross immoralities, to all ages an irreligious writer. Boccaccio The Decamerone centres in itself all the wit, all the indecency, all the cleverest mockery of the French and Provençal Fabliaux, and this it has clothed in that exquisite, all-admired Florentine which has secured its undying fame. The awful description of the Plague in Florence has been compared, but by no means with justice, to that of Thucydides and that of Lucretius. This grave opening of the Decamerone might be expected to usher in a book of the profoundest devotion, the most severe, ascetic penitential. After this, another Dante might summon the smitten city to behold its retributive doom

* *Inferno*, x. 119. Pietro della Vigna calls him—

"Al mio Signor, che fu d' oïer sì degno."—*Inferno*, xii. 75.

in the Infernal Regions ; a premature Savonarola might thunder his denunciations, and call on Florence, thus manifestly under divine visitation, to cast all her pomps and vanities, her ornaments, her instruments of luxury, upon the funeral pyre ; to sit and lament in dust and ashes. This terrific opening leads, but not in bitter irony, to that other common consequence of such dark visitations, the most reckless licence. Tale follows tale, gradually sinking from indecency into obscenity, from mockery to utter profaneness. The popular religion, the popular teachers, are exposed with the coarsest, most reckless pleasantry. Erasmus, two centuries later, does not scoff with more playful freedom at pilgrimages, reliques, miracles : Voltaire himself, still two centuries after Erasmus, hardly strips their sanctity from monks, nuns and friars, with more unsparing wit. Nothing, however sung or told in satiric verse or prose against the Court of Rome, can equal the exquisite malice of the story of the Jew converted to Christianity by a visit to Rome, because no religion less than divine could have triumphed over the enormous wickedness of its chief teachers, the Cardinals, and the Pope. Strange age of which the grave Dante and the gay Boccaccio are the representatives ! in which the author of the Decamerone is the biographer of Dante, the commentator on the Divine Comedy, expounding, pointing, echoing, as it were, in the streets of Florence the solemn denunciations of the poet. More strange, if possible, the history of the Decamerone. Boccaccio himself bitterly repented of his own work : he solemnly warned the youth of Florence against his own loose and profane novels ; the scoffer at fictitious reliques became the laborious collector of reliques not less doubtful ; the

scourge of the friars died in the arms of friars, bequeathing to them his manuscripts, hoping only for salvation through their prayers.* Yet the disowned and proscribed Decamerone became the text-book of pure Italian. Florence, the capital of letters, insisted on the indefeasible prerogative of the Florentine dialect, and the Decamerone was ruled to be the one example of Florentine. The Church was embarrassed; in vain the Decamerone was corrected, mutilated, interpolated, and indecencies, profanenesses annulled, erased: all was without effect; the Decamerone must not be degraded from its high and exemplary authority. The purity of morals might suffer, the purity of the language must remain untainted; till at length an edition was published in which the abbesses and nuns, who were enamoured of their gardeners, became profane matrons and damsels; friars, who wrought false miracles, necromancers; adulterous priests, soldiers. But this last bold effort of jesuitical ingenuity was without effect: the Decamerone was too strong for the censure in all its forms; it shook off its fetters, obstinately refused to be altered, as before it had refused to be chastened; and remains to this day at once the cleverest and bitterest satire,

* See in the works of Petrarch the very curious letter to Boccaccio, de Vatinio Morientium, Opera, p 740. Boccaccio had written in a paroxysm of superstitious terror to Petrarch concerning the prophecies of a certain holy man, Peter of Sienna, on the death of the two poets. Petrarch evidently does not believe a word of what had frightened poor Boccaccio. He alleges many causes of suspicion. "Non extenuo

vaticinu pondus, quicquid a Christo dicitur verum est. Fieri nequit ut veritas mentiatur. At id quantum Christusne rei hujus autor sit, an alter quispiam ad commenti fidem, quod sæpe vidimus, Christi nomen assumpsit." The poet urges Boccaccio, at great length, not to abandon letters, but only the lighter letters of his youth.

and the most curious illustration of the religion of the
age.

7 "Se non che un Dominicano Italiano ed di natura più facile (chiamavasi Eustachio Locatelli, e morì vescovo in Reggio) vi s' interpose; e per essere stato confessore de Pio V., impetò da Gregorio XIII. che il Decamerone non fosse mutato, se non in quanto bisognava al buono nome degli Ecclesiastici."—P. 43. The account of the whole transaction at length may be read in the Discorso prefixed to Foscolo's edition of the Decamerone, London, 1825. Compare the fifth and sixth discourse of Foscolo; the most just criticism with which I am acquainted on Boccaccio, his merits, his influence, his style, and his language. I quote Boccaccio's will on Foscolo's authority. There is nothing new under the sun, nothing obsolete. I possess a translation of Eugene Sue's *Wandering Jew*, printed on the coarsest paper, the rudest type, and cheapest form, obviously intended for the lower Roman Catholics, in which the Jesus becomes a Russian spy; all that is religious is transformed into political satire.

CHAPTER VI.

Language of France.

NOTHING is more remarkable in the civil or in the religious history of the West, nothing led to more momentous or enduring results, than the secession, as it were, of the great kingdom of France from the Teutonic, and its adhesion to the Latin division of Christendom; the fidelity of its language to its Roman descent, and its repudiation of the German conqueror. For about four centuries, loosely speaking, Gaul, from the days of Julius Cæsar, was a province of the Roman Empire. During that period it became Romanised in manners, institutions, language. The Celtic dialect was driven up into the North-Western corner of the land. If it subsisted, as seems to have been the case in the time of Irenæus, still later in that of Jerome, or in the fifth century,* as the dialect of some of the peasantry; if it left its vestiges in the names of plains, of forests and mountains; if even some sounds and words found their way into the supervening Latin, and became a feeble

* According to Ulpian in the second century wills might be drawn in Latin or in the language of Gaul, the Celtic therefore had a legal existence. St. Jerome in the fourth century compares the language of the Asiatic Galatians with that which he had heard spoken in the neighbourhood of Treves. In the fifth, Sulpicius Severus desires one of the interlocutors in a dialogue to

France speak in Gallic or Celtic (Dialog. 1. *sub fine*). Sidonius Apollinarius says that the nobles of his province (Auvergne) had only just cast off all the scales of their Celtic speech; this may have been the pronunciation. The father of Ausonius, a physician at Bazas in Aquitaine, spoke Latin imperfectly. Compare Ampère, *Hist. Lit. de la France*, pp. 36 and 136.

constituent of French; yet there can be no doubt that the great mass of the French language, both the *Langue d'Oïl* of the North, and the *Langue d'Oc* of the South, is of Latin origin.^b

For about four centuries, Teutonic tribes, Goths, Burgundians, Alemannians, Franks, ruled in Gaul, from the first inroad and settlement of the Visigoths in the South, down to the third generation after Charlemagne. Clovis and his race, Charlemagne and his immediate descendants, were Teutons; the language at the Court of Soissons, in the capitals of Neustria and Austrasia, as afterwards in that of Charlemagne at Aix-la-Chapelle, was German. Nor was it only so in the Court; there were Germans throughout the Frankish realm of Charlemagne. The Council of Tours enacts that every Bishop should have homilies in both languages; he should be able to expound them in the rustic Roman and in the Teutonic, so as to be intelligible to the whole people.^c

But the grandsons of Charlemagne behold Latin and Teutonic nationality, the Latin and Teutonic language, dividing the Western Empire. The German is withdrawing, if not beyond the Rhine, to the provinces bordering on the Rhine; Latin is resuming its full dominion over France and the French language. At Strasburg, only thirty years after the Council of Tours, France has become French, Germany German.

^b M. Fauriel (*Histoire de la Poésie Provençale*, i. p. 195) observes of the Provençal that there are more words not of Latin origin than is commonly supposed. He had collected 3000. The whole Provençal literature might perhaps furnish him as many. A great part he could trace to no known language. Some few are Arabic, many Greek, some Celtic, some Basque; not above fifteen Teutonic. The whole investigation is worthy of study.

^c A.D. 812. Labbe, *Concil.* vii. 1263. This injunction was renewed at Rheims and at Mentz A.D. 847. There are fragments of old German sermons.—Raumer, p. 66.

The two Kings of the same race, equally near in blood to Charlemagne, take their oaths in languages not only dialectically different, but distinct in root and origin. Germany still recedes, leaving but few traces of its long dominion ; the Celtic element probably contributes more to the French language than the German. In truth the Germans after all were but an armed oligarchy in France, like the Turks in their European provinces, but by no means so inaccessibly shut up in their Oriental habits, in their manners, in their religion. Even in the Visigothic South, no sooner had the conquest passed over, than the native language, or rather the naturalised Latin, reasserted its independence, its jealous and exclusive superiority : and this, although the Goths were routed and driven out by another Teutonic race, the Franks of the North. France returned entirely to its Latinity ; and from its rustic Roman gradually formed that language which was to have such wide influence on later civilisation.

In this conservation of France to Latin and Latin Christianity, no doubt Latin Christianity, and the hierarchy so long, even under the German sway, of Latin descent, powerfully contributed. The unity of religion in some degree broke down the barrier between the Teuton and the Roman Gaul ; they worshipped the same God in the same Church ; looked for absolution from their sins, trembled before, or sought humbly the counsel of the same Priest. But the Clergy, as has been seen, remained long almost exclusively Roman. The Teutons, who aspired to the high places of the Church (for the services remained obstinately Roman), were compelled to possess one qualification, the power of ministering in that Latin service. The most rude, most ignorant, most worldly Bishop or Priest must learn something, and that lesson must be the

recitation at least, or pronunciation of Latin. Charlemagne's schools, wherever the Teutonic element was the feeblest, would teach in the Rustic Roman, or the Roman more or less rapidly tending to its new form. At least in the Church and in the Cloister the Latin ruled without rival; among the people the Latin element was far the stronger: the stronger is ever aggressive; and the Teutonic was by degrees renounced, and driven towards the Rhine, or over the Rhine. The German Teuton, mindful of his descent, might still call himself a Frank, but the Gallic Frank had ceased to be a German.^d

It is not the least singular fact in the history of the French language, that another German, or kindred Scandinavian race, wrests a large province from France. Normandy takes its name from its Norman conquerors: the land, according to Teutonic usage, is partitioned among those adventurers; they are the lords of the soil. In an exceedingly short time the Normans cease to be Teutons; they are French or Latin in language. About a century and a half after the establishment of the Normans in France, the descendants of Rollo conquer England, and the Conqueror introduces not a kindred dialect, but the hostile and oppugnant Norman-French, into Anglo-Saxon England. The imposition of this foreign tongue, now the exclusive language of the Normans, is the last and incontestable sign of their complete victory over the native inhabitants. This is not the less extraordinary when the Italian Normans also are found for some time obstinately refusing

The Nor-
mans.

A. D. 912-
1063

^d In the epitaph on Gregory V. Gregory (Bruno, cousin of the Emperor Otho) was a German.—Murator. Diss. ii 91. At this time in Italy traces of Italian begin to appear in wills and deeds.—Ibid. p. 93.

^e *Uter Franciscā, vulgari, et voce Latina Institut populos eloquio triplicē.*

to become Italians.¹ They endeavour to compel the Italians to adopt their French manners and language; histories of the Norman conquest are written at Naples or within the kingdom, in Norman-French.* The dialect has adopted some Italian words, but it is still French.[†] Thus within France Teutonism absolutely and entirely surrenders its native tongue, and becomes in the North and in the South of Europe a powerful propagator of a language of Latin descent.

It is not the office of this history to trace the obscure growth of the French language out of the pre-existing elements—the primal Celtic and the Latin. It must not be forgotten that higher up the Celtic and the Latin branch off from the same family—the Indo-Teutonic;[‡] so that the actual roots of French words may be reasonably deduced from either. The Christian language, all the titles, terms, and words which related to the religion, were doubtless pure Latin, and survived, but slightly modified, in the French. Pronunciation is among the most powerful agents in the change and formation of language, in the silent abrogation of the old, the silent crystallisation of the new. Certain races, nations, tribes, families, have a predilection, a predisposition, a facility for the utterance of certain sounds. They prefer labial

* "Moribus et lingua, quoscunque venire videbant, Informant propria, gens efficiatur ut unum"—Gul Appul Lib 1, Muratori, v. 255

† Compare on this subject M. Champollion Figeac's preface to the French Chronicle of the Italian Normans, 'Les Normans' (publication of the Société Historique), p. xlv., &c., with the references to Falconet, Lebœuf, Le Grand d'Aussy, and Tiraboschi.

‡ This fact in the history of lan-

guage, first established by our countryman, Dr. Prichard, in his *Essay on the Eastern Origin of the Celtic Nations*, is now admitted by all writers of authority. See also the excellent treatise of M. Pictet, '*L'Affinité des Langues Celtiques avec le Sanscrit*.' Mr. Bruce Whyte was unfortunately not master of this branch of Philology, which supersedes at once or modifies his whole system.

or guttural, hard or soft letters; they almost invariably substitute the mute, the surd, or the aspirate letter for its equivalent; there is an uniformity, if not a rule of change, either from organism or habit. The Italian delights in the termination of words with a soft vowel, the *Langue d'Oc* with a consonant, the French with a mute vowel. The Latin of the Ritual being a written language, in its structure as well as in its words would inflexibly refuse all change; it would not take the auxiliary verb in place of its conjugations, the article or the preposition to designate its cases; it would adhere to its own declensions, conjugations, inflexions, and thus far would stand aloof from the gradual change going on around it; it would become in so far unintelligible to the vulgar ear. But not only, the roots remaining the same, would the great mass of the words retain their significance; there would also be some approximation in the tone and accent. The Clergy, being chiefly of the country, and in their ordinary conversation using the language of the country, would pronounce their Latin with a propensity to the same sounds which were forming the French. Latin as pronounced by an Italian, a Frenchman, or a Spaniard, during the formation, and after the formation, of the new tongue, would have a tinge of Italian, French, or Spanish in its utterance. The music being common throughout the Church might perhaps prevent any wide deviation, but whatever deviation there might be would tend to make the meaning of the words more generally and easily comprehensible. So there would be no precise time when the Latin Ritual would become at once and perceptibly a foreign tongue; the common rustic Roman, or the Romance, if not the offspring was probably akin to the ecclesiastical Latin, at all events all Church words or terms would

Effect of
Church
service.

form part of it. And so on the one hand Latin Christianity would have a powerful influence in the creation of the new language, and at the same time never be an unintelligible stranger; hers would be rather a sacred and ancient form of the same language among her lineal and undoubted descendants.

The early poetry of the *Langue d'Oil* was either the Legend or the Poem of Chivalry. The *Trouvère* of the North was far more creative than the *Troubadour* of the South. In his lighter *Fabliaux* the *Trouvère* makes no less free with the Christian Clergy and with Christian morals than his brother of the South, but his is the freedom of gaiety or of licentiousness, not of bitter hatred, or pitiless, and contemptuous satire. There is nothing of the savage seriousness of the *Provençal*.^h

But the higher *Epopée* of the Northern *Trouvère* was almost contemporaneous in its rise with the Crusades; its flourishing period was that of the Crusades, and as far as that was a real and actual state of society, of Chivalry. It is the heroic poetry of mediæval Christianity. The Franks were the warriors, the Franks the poets of the *CROSS*. In both the great Cycles, of Charlemagne and his Peers, of Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table, in the subordinate cycles, as of Rinaldo, or the four Sons of Aymon, the hero was ever a Christian knight, the enemy, whether knight, giant, or even dragon, was anti-Christian, Saracen, misbeliever, or devil. Charlemagne's war is of the West against the East, of Latin Christianity against Islam; the Gascons and the Basques at *Roncesvalles* become the splendid Saracens

^h It must not be forgotten that in Italian but in French, as of all the vernacular tongues the most likely to be enduring.
Brunetto Latini, the master of Dante (so little prescient was he of the glory of his pupil), wrote his *Tesoro* not

of Spain; the whole misbelieving East is gathered around Christian Paris. The Church avouched the wonders of Archbishop Turpin, adopted the noble fictions about Charlemagne and his Peers. These became part of authorised Christian Legend, when Legend and History were one; when it would have been equal impiety to assert the mythic character of the former as that of the authentic Gospel.¹ So, too, whether Arthur and his Knights sprung, as is most probable, from Breton or from British lays, the Saxondom of his foes recedes, the Paganism, even the Saracenism takes its place. It is not the ancient British King and his British warriors warring with Saxons and Anglians on the borders of Wales, Cumberland, or Cornwall for the dominion of Britain; it is the Christian King and the Christian Knight waging a general war of adventure against unbelievers. It is not the independence of Britain, it is the mystic Sangreal, the cup with the blood of the Redeemer, which is the holy object, the ideal reward of their valour; it is to be the triumph of the most chaste and virtuous as well as of the bravest knight. The sons of Aymon are Southern knights keeping the Spanish borders (Spain reserved her Cid for her own noble old poem), but the Sons of Aymon are adopted Northerns; the Troubadour Poetry knows little or nothing of their chivalry. Toulouse owns only her own unidealised, unromanticised Counts: the few Provençal poems of chivalry are of doubtful origin: their Epic is the dull verse chronicle of the Albigensian War.

But, after all, in this inexhaustible fecundity of her Romance, whether from the rudeness and imperfection of the language at this period of her prolific creativeness,

¹ Tiraboschi, l. v.

or from some internal inaptitude in French for this high class of poetry, from want of vigour, metrical harmony, and variety, or even from its excellence, its analytical clearness and precision, the Mediæval Poetry of Northern France, with all its noble, chivalrous, and crusading impulses, called forth no poet of enduring fame. The Homer of this race of cyclic poets was to be an Italian. It was not till these poems had sunk into popular tales; till, from the poem recited in the castle or the court of the King or the Baron, they had become disseminated among the people;^k not till they had spread into Italy, and as the 'Reali di Francia' had been over and over again recited by the professional story-tellers, and been rudely versified by humbler poets, that they were seized first by the bold and accomplished Boiardo, afterwards by the inimitable Ariosto, and in their full ancient spirit, yet with some fine modern irony, bequeathed to mankind in the most exquisite and harmonious Italian. Even the Crusades were left to the gentle and romantic Tasso, when the religious fire of the Crusades and of Chivalry was all but extinct in its cold faint embers.

But if the Crusades, and by the Crusades Latin Christianity, did not create enduring French poetry, they created the form of history in which France has excelled

^k "Tutte le meraviglie ch' oggi leggiamo ne romanzi o poemi, che hanno per soggetto i Paladini, erano allora raccontate al popolo dai novellatori; e quest' uso rimane in alcune città, e specialmente in Venezia e in Napoli sino a quest' ultimi anni. Chiunque non sapeva leggere, si raccoglieva quasi ogni sera d' estate intorno il novellatore su la riva del mare," &c. &c.—Foscolo,

Discoiso, v. p. 229. This accounts at once for the adoption of such subjects by Pulci, Boiardo, and Ariosto, when the high tide of classical letters had not passed away; as well as for the unbounded popularity of their poems, and of countless other epics, once common as the stones in the streets, now the rarities of the choicest libraries.

all Europe. Perhaps of vernacular history, properly so called, the Florentine Villani is the parent; of political history, Dino Compagni; but that history, which delights from its reality and truth, as springing from the personal observation, instinct with the personal character, alive with all the personal feelings of the historian, the model and type of the delightful Memoir, is to be found first in Villehardouin and Joinville, to rise to still higher perfection in Froissart and in De Comines. No cold later epic on St. Louis will rival the poetry of Joinville.

CHAPTER VII.

Teutonic Languages.

IN all the Romance languages, as it has appeared, in all languages of Latin descent, Italian, French ^{Teutonic languages.} both in its northern and southern form, Spanish in all its dialects, the religious vocabulary, every word which expressed Christian notions, or described Christian persons, was Latin, only lengthened out or shortened, deflected, or moulded, according to the genius of each tongue; they were the same words with some difference of pronunciation or form, but throughout retaining their primal sense: the words, even if indistinctly understood, had at least an associated significance, they conveyed, if not fully, partially to all, their proper meaning.

In the Teutonic languages it was exactly the reverse. For all the primal and essential Christian notions the German found its own words; it was only what may be called the Church terms, the ecclesiastical functions and titles, which it condescended or was compelled to borrow from the Latin.* The highest of all, "God," with all

* M. Regnier, in a *Mémoire* in the last year's *Transactions of the Academy* (p. 324), has summed up in a few clear French sentences, the substance of a learned work by Rudolf Raumer, which I have read with much profit 'Die Einwirkung des Christenthums auf die althochdeutsche Sprache.' Berlin, 1851. "Un fait remarquable, et

qui prouve bien avec quel soin jaloux la langue se conservait pure de toute mélange étrangère, c'est qu'au moment même de l'introduction du Christianisme, qui apportait tant d'idées nouvelles, elle n'eut pas besoin d'emprunter au Grec et au Latin les mots qui les rendaient, que ses propres ressources lui suffirent en grande partie, surtout

its derivatives, the "Godhead, godly, godlike," was in sound entirely remote from "Deus, the deity, the divinity, the divine." As to the attributes of God, the German had his own word for allmightiness, for the titles the all-merciful or all-gracious.^b For the Trinity, indeed, as in all Indo-Teutonic languages, the numerals are so nearly akin, that there would be at least a close assonance, if not identity, in the words; and the primitive word for "father" is so nearly an universal, that the Latin "Pater" might be dimly discerned under the broader Teutonic pronunciation, "Fader." But the "Son and the Holy Ghost"^c were pure, unapproaching Teuton. The names of the Saviour, "Jesus," and "the Christ," passed of course into the creed and ritual; but the "Lord," and the German "Herr," were Teuton, as were the "healer, health," for the "Saviour and salvation," the "atonement" for the "propitiation."^d In the older versions the now ignoble words "hanging and the gallows" were used instead of the Crucifixion and the Cross: the "Resurrection" takes the German form.^e The "Angels and the Devils" underwent but little change; but all the special terms of the Gospel, "the soul, sin, holiness, faith, prayer, repentance, penance, confession, conversion, heaven and hell, Doomsday, even Baptism and the Lord's Supper," were new and peculiar.^f

pour l'expression des sentiments qui appartenaient à la foi Chrétienne, et que ce ne fut guère que pour l'organisation extérieure de l'Eglise, qu'elle reçut en partie du dehors les mots avec les faits."—In a note M. Regnier illustrates these assertions by examples, many of them the same as those cited in my text.

^b Compounds from Macht—Barm-

herzigkeit—Gnade.

^c Der Sohn, der Heilige Geist.

^d Der Herr, Heiland, Heil.

^e Notker and Otfried use "hengan und galgen"—Auferstehung, Rodolf Raumer, b. iii.

^f Seele, Sünde, Schuld, Heiligkeit, Glaube, Gebete, Reue, Busse, Beichte, Bekehrung, Himmel, Hölle, Taufe, Heiliger Abendmahl.

The Book;^g the Seer not the Prophet;^h above all, the great Festivals of Christmas and Easter,ⁱ were original, without relation in sound or in letters to the Latin. Of the terms which discriminated the Christian from the Unbeliever one was different; the Christian, of course, was of all languages, the Gentile or the Pagan became a "heathen." So too "the world" took another name. To the German instructed through these religious words, the analogous vocabulary of the Latin service was utterly dead and without meaning; the Latin Gospel was a sealed book, the Latin service a succession of unintelligible sounds. The offices and titles of the Clergy alone, at least of the Bishop and the Deacon, as well as the Monk, the Abbot, the Prior, the Cloister, were transferred and received as honoured strangers in the land, in which the office was as new as the name.^k "The Martyr" was unknown but to Christianity, therefore the name lived. "The Church" the Teuton derived, perhaps through the Gothic of Ulphilas, from the Greek;^m but besides this single word there is no sign of Greek more than of Latin in the general Teutonic Christian language.ⁿ The Bible of Ulphilas was that of an ancient race, which

^g Rodolf Raumer, b. iii.

Ulphilas used the word *praufetus*. See Zahn's glossary to his edition of Ulphilas, p. 70. The German word is *Seher*, or *Wahrsager*.

ⁱ *Weihnacht*. "Ostara" (in Anglo-Saxon, Easter) "paraît avoir désigné dans des temps plus anciens une Déesse Germanique dont la fête se célébrait vers la même époque que notre Fête de Pâques, et qui avait donné son nom au mois d'Avril."—Grimm, *Mythologie*, p. 267, 8vo., 3^e edit., &c. &c. M. Regnier might have added to his authorities that of

Bede, who in his *de Comp. Temporum* gives this derivation. . . . *Pfingsten* is Pentecost.

^k *Pfaffe*, the more common word for Clericus, is from *Papa*—Raumer, p. 295. It is curious that in the oldest translations the High Priests, Annas and Caiaphas, are Bishops.—*Ibid.* 297.

^m Walafrid Strabo gives this derivation from the Greek through the Gothic. The word is, I believe, not found in the extant part of Ulphilas.

ⁿ Even the word "Catholic" is superseded by "Allgemeine."

passed away with that race; it does not appear to have been known to the Germans east of the Rhine, or to the great body of the Teutons, who were converted to Christianity some centuries later, from the seventh to the eleventh. The Germans who crossed the Rhine or the Alps came within the magic circle of the Latin; they submitted to a Latin Priesthood; they yielded up their primitive Teuton, content with forcing many of their own words, which were of absolute necessity, perhaps some of their inflexions, into the language which they ungraciously adopted. The descendants of the Ostrogoths, the Visigoths, the Burgundians, the Lombards, by degrees spoke languages of which the Latin was the groundwork; they became in every sense Latin Christians.

Our Anglo-Saxon ancestors were the first Teutonic race which remained Teuton. It is a curious problem how the Roman Missionaries from the South, and the Celtic Missionaries from the North, wrought the conversion of Anglo-Saxondom.* Probably the early conversions in most parts of the island were hardly more than ceremonial; the substitution of one rite for another; the deposing one God and accepting another, of which they knew not much more than the name; and the subjection to one Priesthood, who seemed to have more powerful influence in heaven, instead of another who had ceased to command success in war, or other blessings which they expected at his hands. This appears from the ease and carelessness with which the religion was for some period accepted and thrown off again. As in the island, or in each separate kingdom,

* Augustine addressed Ethelbert through an interpreter. The Queen and her retinue were French, and used to intercourse with a Latin priesthood.

the Christian or the Heathen King, the Christian or the Heathen party was the stronger, so Christianity rose and fell. It was not till the rise of a Priesthood of Anglo-Saxon birth under Wilfrid, or during his time, that England received true Christian instruction; it was not till it had, if not an Anglo-Saxon ritual, Anglo-Saxon hymns, legends, poetry, sermons, that it can be properly called Christian; and all those in their religious vocabulary are Teutonic, not Latin. It was in truth notorious that, even among the Priesthood, Latin had nearly died out, at least if not the traditional skill of repeating its words, the knowledge of its meaning.

Our Anglo-Saxon Fathers were the first successful missionaries in Trans-Rhenane Germany. The Celt Columban and St. Gall were hermits and cœnobites, not missionaries; and in their Celtic may have communicated, if they encountered them, with the aboriginal Gauls, but they must chiefly have made their way through Latin. They settled within the pale of Roman Gaul, built their monasteries on the sites of old Roman cities; their proselytes (for they made monks at least, if not numerous converts to the faith) were Gallo-Romans.^p But no doubt the Anglo-Saxon of Winfrid (Boniface) and his brother apostles of Germany was the means of

^p Columban has left a few lines of Latin poetry. While his Celticism appears from his obstinate adherence to the ancient British usage about Easter, it is strange that he should be mixed up with the controversy about the "three Chapters." M. Ampère has pointed out the singular contrast between the adulation of Columban's letter to Pope Boniface on this subject, "*pulcherrimo omnium totius Europæ ecclesiarum capiti . . .*" | *Papæ prædicto, præcelso, præstanti* (*præstanti?*) *pastorum pastori humillimus celsissimo, agrestis urbano,*" and the bold and definite language of the letter itself: "*Tamdiu enim potestas apud vos erit, quamdiu recta ratio permanserit. Dolere se de infamiâ quæ cathedræ S. Petri iniuritur.*"—*Annal. Benedict.* i. 274. Compare Ampère, *Hist. Lit. de la France*. iii. p. 9. The Celt is a Latin in language rather than in thought.

intercourse; the kindred language enabled them to communicate freely and successfully with the un-Romanised races: Teutons were the apostles of Teutons. It was through the persuasive accents of a tongue, in its sounds as in its words closely resembling their own, not in the commanding tones of foreign Latin, that the religion found its way to their hearts and minds. Charlemagne's conversions in the further north were at first through an instrument in barbarous ages universally understood, the sword. Charlemagne was a Teuton warring on Teutons: he would need no interpreter for the brief message of his evangelic creed to the Saxons—"Baptism or death." Their conversion was but the sign of submission, shaken off constantly during the long wars, and renewed on every successful inroad of the conqueror. But no doubt in the bishoprics and the monasteries, the religious colonies with which Charlemagne really achieved the Christianisation of a large part of Germany, though the services might be in Latin, the schools might instruct in Latin, and the cloister language be Latin, German youths educated as Clergy or as Monks could not forget or entirely abandon their mother tongue.⁴ Latin and German became insensibly mingled, and interpenetrated

⁴ "Dem Kloster S. Gallen wird im 10ten Jahrhundert nachgeuhmt, dass nur die Kleinsten Knaben seiner Schule sich der Deutschen Sprache bedienten; alle übrigen aber mussten ihre Conversation Lateinisch führen. In den meisten Fällen aber lief natürlich der Gebrauch der Deutschen Muttersprache neben dem der Lateinischen her. Dabei entstand jene Mischung Lateinischer mit Deutsche Worte, die wir in so vielen Glossen handschriften der Althochdeutschen

Zeit finden. Man erkläre bei der Auslegung Lateinischer Texte die schwierigeren Wörter entweder durch geläufigere Lateinische oder auch durch entsprechende Deutsche. Dadurch musste eine fortdauernde Wechselwirkung zwischen dem Lateinischen und Deutschen in den Klöstern entstehen." Raumer, p. 201. Otfried, the German sacred poet, owed his education to the scholar and theologian, H. Rhabanus Maurus.

each other. As to the general language of the country, there was an absolute necessity that the strangers should yield to the dominant Teutonism, rather than, like Rome of old in her conquered provinces, impose their language on the subject people. The Empire of Charlemagne till his death maintained its unity. The great division began to prevail during the reign of Louis the Pious, between the German and the Frank portions of the Empire. By that time the Franks (though German was still spoken in the north-east, between the Rhine and the Meuse) had become blended and assimilated with those who at least had begun to speak the *Langue d'Oil* and the *Langue d'Oc*.^{*} But before the oath at Strasburg had as it were pronounced the divorce between the two realms, Teutonic preachers had addressed German homilies to the people, parts of the Scripture had found their way into Germany, German vernacular poets had begun to familiarise the Gospel history to the German ear, the Monks aspired to be vernacular poets.^{*} As in Anglo-Saxon England, so in the dominions of Louis the Pious, and of Lothaire, the *Heliand*, and the *Harmony of the Gospels* by Otfried, had opened the Bible, at least the New Testament, to the popular ear. The *Heliand* was written in the dialect of Lower Saxony. Otfried, a Monk of Weissenberg in Alsace, wrote in High German. The *Heliand* is alliterative verse, Otfried in rhyme. Otfried wrote his holy poem to wean the minds of men from their worldly songs; the history of the Redeemer was to supplant the songs of the old German heroes. How far Otfried succeeded in his pious

^{*} See above, from the canons of the Councils of Tours, Rheims, and Meitz. Matthew, and the version of the Gospel Harmony of Ammannus, Notker's Psalms, the Lord's Prayer and

^{*} See on the Vienna fragments of the old German translation of St. Creed.—Rauher, pp. 35 *et seqq.*

design is not known, but even in the ninth century, other Christian poetry, a poem on St. Peter, a legend of St. Gall, a poem on the miracles of the Holy Land, introduced Christian thoughts and Christian imagery into the hearts of the people.¹

Thus Christianity began to speak to mankind in Greek; it had spoken for centuries in the commanding Latin; henceforth it was to address a large part of the world in Teutonic. France and Spain were Romanised as well as Christianised. Germany was Christianised, but never Romanised. England, Germanised by the Anglo-Saxon conquest, was partially Romanised again by the Normans, who, in their province of France, had entirely yielded to the Gallo-Roman element. Westward of the Rhine and south of the Danube, the German conquerors were but a few, an armed aristocracy; in Germany they were the mass of the people. However, therefore, Roman religion, to a certain extent Roman law, ruled eastward of the Rhine, each was a domiciled

¹ On the *Heland* and on *Otfried* see the powerful criticism of Gervinus, *Geschichte der Poetischen National Literatur der Deutschen*, i. p. 84, *et seqq.* Neither are translators; they are rather paraphrasts of the Gospel. The Saxon has more of the popular poet, *Otfried* more of the religious teacher, in *Otfried* the poet appears, in the Saxon he is lost in his poetry. Where the Saxon leaves the text of the Gospel, it is in places where the popular poetry offers him matter and expression for epic amplification or adornment, as in the Murder of the Innocents; and where in the description of the Last Judgment he reminds us of the Scandinavian imagery of the destruction of the world: in this not altogether

unlike the fragment of the *Muspelli* edited by Schmeller. Instead of this, *Otfried* cites passages of the Prophets Joel and Zephaniah. On the whole, the Saxon has an epic, *Otfried* a lyric and didactic character. Gervinus thinks but meanly of *Otfried* as a poet. The whole passage is striking and instructive. The *Heland* has been edited by Schmeller, and *Otfried* best by Graff, Königsberg, 1831. Compare Lachmann's article in *Ersch und Gruber's Encyclopædie*. The Poem on St. Gall exists only in a fragment of a Latin translation in Pertz, ii. p. 33. The first is in Hoffman, *Geschichte des Deutschen Kirchenliedes*; the last in Vit. Altman, in *Pez. Script. Rer. Austriac.* i. p. 117.

stranger. The Teuton in character, in habits, in language, remained a Teuton. As their tribes of old united for conquest; the conquest achieved, severed again to erect independent kingdoms; as the Roman Empire in Germany was at last but a half-naturalised fiction, controlled, limited, fettered by the independent Kings, Princes, and Prelates: so, as our History has shown, there was a constant struggle in the German Churchman between the Churchman and the Teuton—a gravitating tendency towards Roman unity in the Churchman, a repulsion towards independence in the Teuton. But for the Imperial claims on Italy and on Rome, which came in aid of the ecclesiastical centralisation under the Papacy, Teutonism might perhaps have much earlier burst free from the Latin unity.

The Norman conquest brought England back into the Roman pale; it warred as sternly against the independence of the Anglo-Saxon Bishop as against that of the Anglo-Saxon thane; it introduced the Latin religious phraseology. Hence in England we in many cases retain and use almost indifferently both the Latin and the Teutonic terms; in some instances only we inflexibly adhere to our vernacular religious language, and show a loyal predilection for the Saxon tongue. “God” and “the Lord” retain their uninvaded majesty. “The Son” admits no rival, but we admit the Holy *Spirit* as well as the Holy *Ghost*, but the Holy Ghost “sanctifies.” The attributes of God, except his Almightyness and his wisdom, are more often used in theological discussion than in popular speech. Therefore his “omnipresence,” his “omniscience” (he is also “all-knowing”), his “ubiquity,” his “infinity,” his “incomprehensibility,” are Latin. In the titles of Christ, “the Saviour,” the “Redeemer,” the “Intercessor,” except in the “Atone-

ment," instead of the "Propitiation or Reconciliation," Latin has obtained the mastery. "Sin" is Saxon; "righteousness," a kind of common property; "mercy and love" may contend for pre-eminence; "goodness" is genuine German; "faith and charity" are Latin; "love," German. We await "Doomsday, or the Day of Judgement;" but "Heaven and Hell" are pure Teutonisms.* "Baptism" is Latinised Greek. The "Lord's Supper" contests with the "Eucharist;" the "Holy Communion" mingles the two. "Easter" is our Paschal Feast. We speak of Gentiles and Pagans, as well as "Heathens." Our inherited Greek, "Church," retains its place; as does "Priest," from the Greek presbyter. In common with all Teutons, our ecclesiastical titles, with this exception, are borrowed.

During this period of suspended Teutonic life in England, Germany had not yet receded into her rigid Teutonism. The Crusades united Christendom, Latin and German, in unresisting and spontaneous confederacy. The Franks, as has been seen, were in the van; Germany followed sluggishly, reluctantly, at intervals, made at least two great paroxysmal efforts under the Emperors, who themselves headed the armaments, but then collapsed into something bordering on apathy. From that time only single Princes and Prelates girt themselves with the Cross. The long feud, the open war of the Emperors and the Popes, was no strife between the races; the Emperor warred not for German interests, but for his own; it was as King of the Romans, with undefined rights over the Lombard and Tuscan cities, later as King of Naples as well as Emperor of

* The German Heiden is clearly analogous in its meaning to Pagan; the word is not the Greek Ethnic.

Germany, that he maintained the internecine strife. If Frederick II. had been a German, not a Sicilian; if his capital had been Cologne or Mentz or Augsburg, not Palermo or Naples; if his courtly language, the language of his statesmen and poets, had been a noble German, rising above the clashing and confused dialects of High and Low, Franconian, Swabian, Bavarian; if he had possessed the power and the will to legislate for Germany as he legislated for Apulia, different might have been the issue of the conflict.

Throughout all this period, the true mediæval period, Germany was as mediæval as the rest of Christendom. Her poets were as fertile in chivalrous romances; whether translated or founded on those of the Trouvères, there is not a poem on any of the great cycles, the classical or that from ancient history, those of Charlemagne or of Arthur, not a tale of adventure, which has not its antitype in German verse, in one or other of the predominant dialects. The legends of the Saints of all classes and countries (the romances of religious adventure) are drawn out with the same inexhaustible fecundity, to the same interminable length.* The somewhat later Minnesingers echo the amatory songs of the Troubadours; and everywhere, as in France and England, the vernacular first mingles in grotesque incongruity with the Latin Mystery; scenes of less dignity, sometimes broadly comic in the vulgar tongue, are interpolated into the more solemn and stately Latin spectacle.

When the Norman dynasty, and with the Norman

* Many of these poems, sacred and "Marienleben," are in course of publication at Quedlinburg, in the *Bibliothek der Kaiser Chronik, Kutrun*, as well as the great "Passional" and the *Passional*.

dynasty the dominance of the Norman language came to an end, nearly at the same period the English constitution and the English language began to develop themselves in their mingled character, but with Teutonism resuming its superiority. As in the constitution the Anglo-Saxon common law, so in the structure and vocabulary of the language the Anglo-Saxon was the broad groundwork. Poetry rose with the language; and it is singular to observe that the earliest English poems of original force and fancy (we had before only the dry dull histories of Wace, and Robert of Gloucester, Norman rather than English⁷), the Vision and the Creed of Piers Ploughman, while they borrow their allegorical images from the school of the Romance of the Rose, adopt the alliterative verse of the old Anglo-Saxon. The Romance of the Rose, by its extraordinary popularity had introduced the Impersonated Virtues and Vices, which had almost driven out the knights and the saints of the Romance and the Legend; instead of the wild tale of chivalrous adventure, or the holy martyrdom, poetry became a long and weary allegory: even the Mystery before long gave place to the Morality. In some degree this may have been the Morals of Christianity reasserting coequal dignity and importance against ritual observances and blind sacerdotal authority: it is constantly rebuking with grave solemnity, or keen satire, the vices of the Clergy, the Monks, and the Friars.

Before Chaucer, even before Wycliffe, appeared with

⁷ The *Ormulum*, excellently edited by Dr. Meadows White, Oxford, 1852, is a paraphrase of the Gospels (it is curious to compare it with the older Teutonic *Heliand* and *Otfried*) in verse

and language, of a kind of transition period, by some called semi-Saxon. See on the *Ormulum*, Introduction to Bosworth's Anglo-Saxon Dictionary.

his rude satire, his uncouth alliterative verse, his homely sense, and independence of thought, the author of *Piers Ploughman's Vision*.^{*} This extraordinary manifestation of the religion, of the language, of the social and political notions, of the English character, of the condition, of the passions and feelings of rural and provincial England, commences, and with Chaucer and Wycliffe completes the revelation of this transition period, the reign of Edward III. Throughout its institutions, language, religious sentiment, Teutonism is now holding its first initiatory struggle with Latin Christianity. In Chaucer is heard a voice from the court, from the castle, from the city, from universal England. All orders of society live in his verse, with the truth and originality of individual being, yet each a type of every rank, class, every religious and social condition and pursuit. And there can be no doubt that his is a voice of freedom, of more or less covert hostility to the hierarchical system, though more playful and with a poet's genial appreciation of all which was true, healthful, and beautiful in the old faith. In Wycliffe is heard a voice from the University, from the seat of theology and scholastic philosophy, from the centre and stronghold of the hierarchy; a voice of revolt and defiance, taken up and echoed in the pulpit throughout the land against the sacerdotal domination. In the *Vision of Piers Ploughman* is heard a voice from the wild Malvern Hills, the voice it should seem of an humble parson, or secular priest. He has passed some years in London, but his home, his heart is among the poor rural population of central Mercian England. Tra-

^{*} The *Vision* bears its date about Last Days, before 1370. Whittaker, 1365. Chaucer's great work is about p xxxvi. and last note to Introduction twenty years later. Wycliffe was Also Wright's Preface. hardly known, but by his tract on the

dition, uncertain tradition, has assigned a name to the Poet, Robert Langland, born at Oleobury Mortimer, in Shropshire, and of Oriel College, Oxford. Whoever he was, he wrote in his provincial idiom, in a rhythm perhaps from the Anglo-Saxon times familiar to the popular ear; if it strengthened and deepened that feeling, no doubt the poem was the expression of a strong and wide-spread feeling. It is popular in a broader and lower sense than the mass of vernacular poetry in Germany and England. We must rapidly survey the religion, the politics, the poetry of the Ploughman.

The Visionary is no disciple, no precursor of Wycliffe in his broader religious views: the Loller of Piers Ploughman is no Lollard; he applies the name as a term of reproach for a lazy indolent vagrant.^a The Poet is no dreamy speculative theologian; he acquiesces seemingly with unquestioning faith in the creed and in the usages of the Church. He is not profane but reverent as to the Virgin and the Saints. Pilgrimages, penances, oblations on the altar, absolution, he does not reject, though they are all nought in comparison with holiness and charity; on Transubstantiation and the Real Presence and the Sacraments he is almost silent, but his silence is that of submission not of doubt.^b It is in his intense absorbing moral feeling that he is beyond

^a Passus Sextus, p. 75 and elsewhere, Loller's life is begging at but-tery hatches, and loitering on Fridays or Feast Days at Church, p. 76.

^b There is a very curious passage as to the questions even then agitated —

"I have Heard High men,—eating at the table,
Carp as though they Clerks were,—of
Christ and his might,
And laud Faults on the Father—that
Formed us all . . .

Why would our Saviour Suffer,—Such a
worm in his bliss
That beguiled the woman,—and the man
after' —Wright, 179.

The religious poet puts down these questions with holy indignation.

I quote mostly from Dr. Whittaker's edition, sometimes from Wright's, taking the liberty of modernising only the spelling, which shows how near most of it is to our vernacular English.

his age: with him outward observances are but hollow shows, mockeries, hypocrisies, without the inward power of religion. It is not so much in his keen cutting satire on all matters of the Church as in his solemn installation of Reason and Conscience as the guides of the self-directed soul, that he is breaking the yoke of sacerdotal domination: in his constant appeal to the plainest, simplest Scriptural truths, as in themselves the whole of religion, he is a stern reformer. The sad serious Satirist, in his contemplation of the world around him, the wealth of the world and the woe,^c sees no hope, no consolation but in a new order of things, in which if the hierarchy shall subsist, it shall subsist in a form, with powers, in a spirit totally opposite to that which now rules mankind. The mysterious Piers the Ploughman seems to designate from what quarter that reformer is to arise. Piers the Ploughman, who at one time was a sort of impersonation of the industrious and at the same time profoundly religious man, becomes at the close Piers Pardon Ploughman, the great publisher of the pardon of mankind through Christ. In him is the teaching, absorbing power of the Church; he is the great assertor and conservator of Unity.

With Wycliffe, with the spiritual Franciscans, Langland ascribes all the evils, social and religious, of the dreary world to the wealth of the Clergy, of the Monks, and the still more incongruous wealth of the Mendicants. With them he asserts the right, the duty, the obligation of the temporal Sovereign to despoil the hierarchy of their corrupting and fatal riches.^d As he has nothing of

* "And Marvellously me Met—as I May
you tell,
All the Wealth of the World—and the
Wee both"—p. 2.

^d "For If Possession be Poison—and im-
Perfect these make

The Heads of Holy Church,
It were Charity to discharge them for
Holy Church sake,
And Purge them of the old Poison."

—p. 236.

See the whole passage.

the scholastic subtlety, of the Predestinarianism, or speculative freedom of Wycliffe, so he has nothing of the wild spiritualist belief in the prophecies of ages to come. With the Fraticelli, to him the fatal gift of Constantine was the doom of true religion; with them he almost adores poverty, but it is industrious down-trodden rustic poverty; not that of the impostor beggar,* common in his days, and denounced as sternly as by the political economy of our own, still less of the religious mendicant. Both these are fiercely excluded from his all-embracing charity.^f

Langland is Antipapal, yet he can admire an ideal Pope, a general pacificator, reconciling the Sovereigns of the world to universal amity.^g It is the actual Pope, the Pope of Avignon or of Rome, levying the wealth of the world to slay mankind, who is the object of his bitter invective.^h The Cardinals he denounces with the same indignant scorn; but chiefly the Cardinal Legate, whom he has seen in England riding in his pride and pomp, with lewdness, rapacity, merciless extortion, insolence in his train.ⁱ Above all, his hatred (it might seem

* See Passus iv. where Waster refuses to Work, and Piers summons Want to seize him by the paunch, and wing him well. The whole contrast of the industrious and idle poor is remarkable. Also the Impostors and Jolly Beggars, as of our own days, and the favourable view of "God's Minstrels."—Whittaker, p. 154 This passage was not in Mr. Wright's copy.

^f Pass. vi. p. 76.

^g "Sithen Prayed to the Pope,—have Pity of Holy Church,
And no Grace to Grant—till Good love were,
Among all Kind of Kings—over Christian people,

Command all Confessors that any King shrive
Enjoin him Peace for his Penance—and Perpetual forgiveness"—p. 85

^h Simony and Civil go to Rome to put themselves under the Pope's protection.—P. iii. p. 36.

"And God amend the Pope—that Pillesh Holy Church,
And Claimeth by force to be King—to be Keeper over Christendom,
And Counteth not how Christian Men be Killed and robbed,
And Findeth Folk to Fight,—and Christian blood to spill"—Do Best, p. 1, p. 389.

Compare p. 297.

ⁱ "The Country is the Curseded,—that Cardinals Come in,
And where they Lie and Linger,—Lechery there reigneth."

—Wright, p. 420.

that on this all honest English indignation was agreed) is against the Mendicant orders. Of the older monks there is almost total silence. For St. Benedict, for St. Dominic, for St. Francis he has the profoundest reverence.^k But it is against their degenerate sons that he arrays his allegorical Host; the Friars furnish every impersonated vice, are foes to every virtue; his bitterest satire, his keenest irony (and these weapons he wields with wonderful poetic force) are against their dissoluteness, their idleness, their pride, their rapacity, their arts, their lies, their hypocrisy, their intrusion into the functions of the Clergy, their delicate attire, their dainty feasts, their magnificent buildings,^m even their proud learning; above all their hardness, their pitilessness to the poor, their utter want of charity, which with Langland is the virtue of virtues.

Against the Clergy he is hardly less severe;ⁿ he sternly condemns their dastardly desertion of their flocks, when during the great plague they crowded to London to live an idle life: that idle life he describes with singular spirit and zest. Yet he seems to recognise the Priesthood as of Divine institution. Against the whole host of officials, pardoners, summoners, Archdeacons, and their functionaries; against lawyers, civil as well as ecclesiastical, he is everywhere fiercely and contemptuously criminatory.

^k Pass. v. p. 70.

^m He scoffs at those who wish their names to appear in the rich painted windows of the Franciscan churches. The Friar absolves Mede (Bribery).—

“ And sithen he seyde,
We have a window in werkynge.
Woldest thou glaze that gable,
And grave there thy name,
Nigher should thy soul be
Heaven to have ”—Wright, p. 46.

There is a full account in “ the Creed ” of a spacious and splendid Dominican Convent, very curious. “ The Creed ” is of a later date, by another author, an avowed Lollard.

ⁿ He declares that the Clergy shall fall as the Templars had fallen.—Do Bet., i. p. 297. But compare Wright, i. p. 233.

His political views are remarkable.^o He has a notion of a king ruling in the affections of the people, with Reason for his chancellor, Conscience for his justiciary. On such a King the commonalty would cheerfully and amply bestow sufficient revenue for all the dignity of his office, and the exigencies of the state, even for his conquests. No doubt that Commonalty would first have absorbed the wealth of the hierarchy.^p He is not absolutely superior to that hatred of the French, nor even to the ambition for the conquest of France engendered by Edward's wars and by his victories. And yet his shrewd common sense cannot but see the injustice and cruelty of those aggressive and sanguinary wars.^q

As a Poet Langland has many high qualities. He is creating his own language, and that in a rude and remote province: its groundwork is Saxon-English, exclusively so in most of its words and in its idioms. It admits occasionally French words, but they appear like strangers; his Latinisms, and words of Latin descent, might seem drawn directly from the Vulgate Scriptures and the Church services. These he constantly cites in

^o There is a strange cross of aristocratical feeling in Langland's levelling notions. That slaves and bastards should be advanced to be clergymen is a crying grievance. They should be sons of franklins and freemen, if not of Lords:—

"And such Bondsmens Bairns have been
made Bishops,
And Barons Bastards have Been Arch-
deacons.
And Soapers (soap-bollers) and their Sons
for Silver have been knights,
And Lords sons their Labourers"

The Barons mortgaged their estates to go to the wars. They were bought, this is curious, by traders.

^p What the Commons require of the

King is Law, Love, and Truth, and himself for then Lord antecedent (p. 57):—

"And I dare Lay my Life that Love would
Lend that silver
To Wage (to pay the wages of) them, and
help Win that thou Wittest after,
More than all the Merchants, or than the
Mitred Bishops,
Or Lombards of Lucca, that Live by Love
as Jews"—p. 74.

^q Had Mede been Seneschal in France, K. Edward would have conquered the length and breadth of the land.—Pass, iv. p. 51. In another passage, he had won France by gentleness.—Do Wel, p. 250.

the original Latin. With his Anglo-Saxon alliteration there is a cadence or rhythm in his verse ; while Chaucer is writing in rhyme Langland seems utterly ignorant of that poetic artifice. The whole poem is an allegory, by no means without plan, but that plan obscure, broken, and confused ; I am inclined to think wanting its close. The Allegory is all his own. The universal outburst of Allegory at this time in Paris, in Germany, in England is remarkable. It had full vogue in Paris, in Rutebeuf, and in the Romance of the Rose, which Chaucer translated into English. As the chivalrous romance and the fabliaux had yielded to the allegorical poem, so also the drama. It might seem, as we have said, as if the awakening moral sense of men, weary of the saints, and angels, and devils, delighted in those impersonations of the unchristian vices and Christian virtues. That which to us is languid, wearisome, unreal, seized most powerfully on the imagination of all orders. Nor had allegory fulfilled its office in the imaginative realm of letters till it had called forth Spenser and Bunyan. Langland, I am disposed to think, approaches much nearer to Bunyan than the Romance of the Rose to the Faëry Queen. But Langland, with all his boldness, and clearness, and originality, had too much which was temporary, much which could not but become obsolete. Bunyan's vision was more simple, had more, if it may be so said, of the moral, or of the scheme, of perpetual, universal Christianity. But Spenser himself has hardly surpassed some few touches by which Langland has designated his personages ; and there is at times a keen quiet irony too fine for Bunyan.

The Poem is manifestly in two parts : the poet, asleep on the Malvern Hills, beholds the whole world ; eastward a magnificent tower, the dwelling of Truth ; opposite a

deep dale, the abode of unblessed spirits ; between them a wide plain, in which mankind are following all their avocations. He dwells rapidly on the evils and abuses of all Orders. A stately lady, in white raiment (Holy Church) offers herself as guide to the Castle of Truth, in which is seated the Blessed Trinity. The first five passages of the first part are on the redress of civil wrongs, the last on the correction of religious abuses. Mede (Bribery) with all her crew are on one side ; Conscience, who refuses to be wedded to Mede,* with Reason on the other. It closes with the King's appointment of Conscience as his Justiciary, of Reason as his Chancellor. In the Sixth Passage the Dreamer awakes ; he encounters Reason. As Reason with Conscience is the great antagonist of social and political evil, so again, Reason, vested as a Pope, with Conscience as his Cross Bearer, is alone to subdue religious evil. For that evil God is visiting the earth with awful pestilences and storms. To avert God's wrath the domestic duties must be observed with fervent affection ; the Pope must have pity on the Church, the religious Orders keep to their rule, those who go on pilgrimages to the Saints seek

* Conscience objects to Mede that she is false and faithless, misleading men by her treasure, leading wives and widows to wantonness. Falsehood and she undid the King's Father (Edward II.), poisoned Popes, impaired holy Church ; she is a strumpet to the basest Sizours of the common law ; summoners of the civil law prize her highly ; sheriffs of counties would be undone without her, for she causes men to forfeit lands and lives ; she bribes gaolers to let out prisoners, imprisons true men, hangs the innocent. She

cares not for being excommunicated in the Consistory Court, she buys absolution by a cope to the Commissary. She can do almost as much work as the King's Privy Seal in 120 days. She is intimate with the Pope, as provisors show. She and Simony seal his Bulls. She consecrates Bishops without learning. She presents Rectors to prebends, maintains priests in keeping concubines and begetting bastards contrary to the Canon, &c. &c.—P. iii p. 46.

rather Truth. Truth is the one eternal object of man. After Repentance has brought all the seven deadly sins to confession* (a strange powerful passage), Hope blows a trumpet, whose blast is to compel mankind to seek Grace from Christ to find out Truth. But no pilgrim who has wandered over the world can show the way to Truth. Now suddenly arises Piers Ploughman; he has long known Truth; he has been her faithful follower. Meekness and the Ten Commandments are the way to, Grace is the Portress of, the noble Castle of Truth. After some time Truth reveals herself. She commands Piers to stay at home, to tend his plough; of the young peasantry industry in their calling is their highest duty; to the laborious poor is offered plenary pardon, and to those who protect them, Kings who rule in righteousness, holy Bishops who justly maintain Church discipline. Less plenary pardon is bestowed on less perfect men, merchants, lawyers who plead for hire. What is this pardon? it is read by a Priest; it contains but these words: "They that have done good shall go into life eternal, they that have done evil into everlasting fire."†

Thus with Piers Ploughman, a holy Christian life, a

* The confession of Covetousness is admirable:—

"Didst thou ever make restitution?
Yes, I once Robbed some Chapmen, and
Rifled their trunks"

Covetousness would go hang herself—
but even for her Repentance has comfort:—

"Have Mercy in thy Mind—and with thy
Mouth beseech it,
For Goddes Mercy is More—than all his
other works,
And all the Wickedness of the World—
that man might Work or think
Is no More to the Mercy of God—than in
the Sea a glede (a spark of fire)"

Wright, p. 94.

† It is added—

"For wise men ben holden
To Purchase you Pardon and the Popes
bulles,
At the Dreadful Doom when the Dead shall
arise,
And Come all before Christ, acCounts to
yield
How thou Leddest thy Life here, and his
Laws kept
A Pouch full of Pardons there, nor Provin-
cials Letters,
Though ye be Found in the Fraternity of
all the Four Orders,
And have Indulgences Double sold, if De
Wel you help,
I set your Patents and your Pardons at on
Plea worth"—Wright, l. p. 180.

life of love, of charity, of charity especially to the poor, is all in all; on the attainment of that life dwells the second Vision, the latter part of the poem. There are three personages by the plain names of Do Well, Do Bet (do better), and Do Best. The whole of this ascent through the different degrees of the Christian life is described with wonderful felicity; every power, attribute, faculty of man, every virtue, every vice is impersonated with the utmost life and truth. The result of the whole is that the essence of the Christian life, the final end of Do Well, is charity. Do Bet appears to have a higher office, to teach other men; and this part closes with a splendid description of the Redeemer's life and passion, and that which displays the poetic power of Robert Langland higher perhaps than any other passage, that mysterious part of the Saviour's function between his passion and resurrection commonly called the "harrowing of hell," the deliverance of the spirits in prison.*

* It is odd that Mahamet (Mahomet) defends the realm of Lucifer against the Lord with guns and mangonels—a whimsical anticipation of Milton.

"There had been a loud cry, Lift up your heads, ye gates, and be ye lift up, ye everlasting doors." At length,

"What Lord art thou? quoth Lucifer. A voice aLoud said,
The Lord of Might and of Heaven, that Made all things,
Duke of this Dim place Anon unDo the gates
That Christ may comen in, the King's son of heaven
And with that Break Hell Brake, with all Beel's Bars,
Nor any Wight or Ward Wide opened the gates,
Patriarchs and Prophets, Populus in tenebris,
Sang out with Saint John, Ecce Agnus Dei."

I am tempted to give the close of this canto—so characteristic of the poem.

He had said in Latin, Mercy and Charity have met together; Righteousness and Peace have kissed each other.—

"Truth Trumpeted them, and sung 'Te Deum laudamus,'
And then saLuted Love, in a Loud note,
Ecce quam bonum et quam jocundum est habitare fratres in unum
Till the Day Dawned, there Damsels Daunced,
That men Rang to the Resurrection. And with that I awaked,
And called Kitty my wife, and Kalotte my daughter,
A Rise and go Reverence Gods Resurrection,
And Creep on knees to the Cross, and Kiss it for a jewel,
And Rightfullest of Reliques, none Richer on earth,
For Gods Blessed Body it Bare for our Bote (good)
And it a Feareth the Fiend; for such is the might,
May no Grinly Ghost Glide where it shadoweth."

In *Do Best Piers Ploughman* appears as a kind of impersonation of the Saviour, or of his faith; the Holy Ghost descends upon him in lightning; Grace arrays him with wonderful power to sustain the war with coming Antichrist; Piety has bestowed upon him four stout oxen (the Evangelists) to till the earth; four bullocks to harrow the land (the four Latin Fathers), who harrow into it the Old and New Testaments; the grain which Piers sows is the cardinal virtues. The poem concludes with the resurrection and war of Antichrist, in which Piers, if victor, is hardly victor—"a cold and comfortless conclusion," says the learned editor, Dr. Whittaker. I am persuaded that it is not the actual or the designed conclusion. The last Passage of *Do Best* can hardly have been intended to be so much shorter than the others. The poet may have broken off indeed in sad despondency, and left his design unfinished; he may have been prevented from its completion; or, what is far less improbable, considering the way in which the Poem has survived, the end may have been lost.

The Poet who could address such opinions, though wrapt up in prudent allegory, to the popular ear, to the ear of the peasantry of England; the people who could listen with delight to such strains, were far advanced towards a revolt from Latin Christianity. Truth, true religion, was not to be found with, it was not known by, Pope, Cardinals, Bishops, Clergy, Monks, Friars. It was to be sought by man himself, by the individual man, by the poorest man, under the sole guidance of Reason, Conscience, and of the Grace of God, vouchsafed directly; not through any intermediate human being, or even Sacrament, to the self-directing soul. If it yet respected all existing doctrines, it respected them not as resting on traditional or sacerdotal authority. There is a manifest

appeal throughout, an unconscious installation of Scripture alone,² as the ultimate judge; the test of everything is a moral and purely religious one, its agreement with holiness and charity.

English prose in Wycliffe's Bible, the higher English poetry in its true father, Chaucer, maintained this prevailing and dominant Teutonism. Wycliffe's Bible, as translated from the Vulgate, had not so entirely shaken off the trammels of Latinity as our later versions; but this first bold assertion of Teutonic independence immeasurably strengthened, even in its language, that independence. It tasked the language, as it were, to its utmost vigour, copiousness, and flexibility: and by thus putting it to the trial, forced out all those latent and undeveloped qualities. It was constantly striving to be English, and by striving became so more and more. Compare the freedom and versatility of Wycliffe's Bible with Wycliffe's Tracts. Wycliffe has not only advanced in the knowledge of purer and more free religion, he is becoming a master of purer and more free English.

Geoffrey Chaucer, among the most remarkable of poets, was in nothing more remarkable than in being most emphatically an English poet. Chaucer lived in courts and castles: he was in the service of the King, he was a retainer of the great Duke of Lancaster. In the court and in the castle, no doubt, if anywhere, with the Norman chivalrous magnificence lingered whatever

* "And is Run to Religion, and hath
Rendered the Bible,
And Preacheth to the People St Paul's
words"—Wright, p. 156

He quotes, "Ye suffer fools gladly"
(1 Cor.) Is this Wycliffe? Clergy
(Theology) weds a wife; her name is
Scripture.—Wright, p. 182. I take

the opportunity of observing that the
famous prophecy, ascribed to Lang-
land, about the King who should sup-
press the monasteries, is merely a vague
and general prediction, though the
naming the Abbot of Abingdon is a
lucky coincidence.—See Wright, p. 192

remained of Norman manners and language. Chaucer had served in the armies of King Edward III.; he had seen almost all the more flourishing countries, many of the great cities, of the Continent, of Flanders, France, Italy. It may be but a romantic tradition, that at the wedding of Violante to the great Duke of Milan he had seen Petrarch, perhaps Boccaccio, and that Froissart too was present at that splendid festival. It may be but a groundless inference from a misinterpreted passage in his poems, that he had conversed with Petrarch (November, 1372); but there is unquestionable evidence that Chaucer was at Genoa under a commission from the Crown. He visited brilliant Florence, perhaps others of the noble cities of Italy. Five years later he was in Flanders and at Paris. In 1378 he went with the Embassy to demand the hand of a French Princess for the young Richard of Bordeaux. Still later he was at the gorgeous court of the Visconti at Milan.⁷ Chaucer was master of the whole range of vernacular poetry, which was bursting forth in such young and prodigal vigour, in the languages born from the Romance Latin. He had read Dante, he had read Petrarch; to Boccaccio he owed the groundwork of two of his best poems—the Knight's Tale of Palamon and Arcite, and Griseldis. I cannot but think that he was familiar with the Troubadour poetry of the Langue d'Oc; of the Langue d'Oïl, he knew well the knightly tales of the Trouvères and the Fabliaux, as well as the later allegorical school, which was then in the height of its fashion in Paris. He translated the Romance of the Rose.

It is indeed extraordinary to see the whole of the mediæval, or post-mediæval poetry (with the great ex-

⁷ Compare the lives of Chaucer, especially the latest by Sir Harris Nicolas.

ception of the Dantesque vision of the other world) summed up, and as it were represented by Chaucer in one or more perfect examples, and so offered to the English people. There is the legend of martyrdom in Constance of Surrie; the miracle legend, not without its harsh alloy of hatred to the unbeliever, in Hugh of Lincoln; the wild, strange, stirring adventures told in the free prolix Epopee of the Trouvère, in its romanticised classic form, in Troilus and Cressida; in the wilder Oriental strain of magic and glamour in the half-told tale of Cambuscan; the chivalrous in Palamon and Arcite; to which perhaps may be added the noble Franklin's Tale. There is the Fabliau in its best, in its tender and graceful form, in Griselidis; in its gayer and more licentious, in January and May; in its coarser, more broadly humorous, and, to our finer manners, repulsive, Miller's Tale; and in that of the Reve. The unfinished Sir Thopas might seem as if the spirit of Ariosto or Cervantes, or of lighter or later poets, was struggling for precocious being. There is the genial apologue of the Cock and the Fox, which might seem an episode from the universal brute Epic, the Latin, or Flemish, or German or French Reynard. The more cumbrous and sustained French allegory appears in the translation of the Romaunt of the Rose; the more rich and simple in the Temple of Fame. There are a few slighter pieces which may call to mind the Lais and Serventes of the South.

Yet all the while Chaucer in thought, in character, in language, is English—resolutely, determinately, almost boastfully English.* The creation of native poetry was

* There is a curious passage in the "Let then Clerkes enditen in Latin, Prologue to the Testament of Love on for they have the propertie of science, the soveran wite in Latin and in French, and the knowlege in that facultie :

his deliberaté aim; and already that broad, practical, humorous yet serious view of life, of life in its infinite variety, that which reaches its height in Shakspeare, has begun to reveal itself in Chaucer. The *Canterbury Tales*, even in the Preface, represent, as in a moving comedy, the whole social state of the times; they display human character in action as in speech; and that character is the man himself, the whole man, with all his mingling, shifting, crossing, contradictory passions, motives, peculiarities, his greatneses and weaknesses, his virtues and his vanities; every one is perfectly human, yet every one the individual man, with the very dress, gesture, look, speech, tone of the individual. There is an example of every order and class of society, high, low, secular, religious. As yet each is distinct in his class, as his class from others. Contrast Chaucer's pilgrims with the youths and damsels of Boccaccio. Exquisitely as these are drawn, and in some respects finely touched, they are all of one gay light class; almost any one might tell any tale with equal propriety; they differ in name, in nothing else.

In his religious characters, if not in his religious tales (religion is still man's dominant motive), Chaucer is by no means the least happy. In that which is purely religious the poet himself is profoundly religious; in his *Prayer to the Virgin*, written for the Duchess Blanche of Lancaster, for whom also he poured forth his sad elegy; in his *Gentle Martyrs S. Constantia and S. Cecilia*: he is not without his touch of bigotry, as has been said, in *Hugh of Lincoln*. But the strong Teutonic good sense of Chaucer had looked more deeply into the

and let Frenchmen in their French also shew our fantasies in such wordes as enditen their quaint termes, for it is wee learneden of our dames tongue."—
kindely to their mouthes; and let us Fol. 271.

whole monastic and sacerdotal system. His wisdom betrays itself in his most mirthful, as in his coarsest humour. He who drew the Monk, the Pardoner, the Friar Limitour, the Summoner, had seen far more than the outer form, the worldliness of the Churchman, the abuse of indulgences, the extortions of the friars, the licentiousness of the Ecclesiastical Courts, of the Ecclesiastics themselves: he had penetrated into the inner depths of the religion. Yet his wisdom, even in his most biting passages, is tempered with charity. Though every order, the Abbot, the Prioress, the Friar, the Pardoner, the Summoner, are impersonated to the life, with all their weaknesses, follies, affectations, even vices and falsehoods, in unsparing freedom, in fearless truth, yet none, or hardly one, is absolutely odious; the jolly hunting Abbot, with his dainty horses, their bridles jingling in the wind, his greyhounds, his bald shining head, his portly person, his hood fastened with a rich pin in a love-knot: the tender and delicate Prioress, with what we should now call her sentimentality, virtuous no doubt, but with her broad and somewhat suspicious motto about all-conquering love: the Friar, who so sweetly heard confession, and gave such pleasant absolution, urging men, instead of weeping and prayers, to give silver to the friars; with his lisping voice and twinkling eyes, yet the best beggar in his house, to whom the poorest widow could not deny a farthing: the Pardoner with his wallet in his lap, brimful of pardons from Rome, with his reliques or pillowbere covered with part of our Lady's veil and the glass vessel with pig's bones; yet in Church the Pardoner was a noble Ecclesiast, read well, chanted with such moving tones, that no one could resist him and not throw silver into the offertory. The Summoner, whose office and the

Archdeacon's Court in which he officiated seem to have been most unpopular, is drawn in the darkest colours, with his fire-red cherubim's face, lecherous, venal, licentious. Above all, the Parish Priest of Chaucer has thrown off Roman mediæval Sacerdotalism; he feels his proper place; he arrays himself only in the virtues which are the essence of his holy function. This unrivalled picture is the most powerful because the most quiet, uninsulting, unexasperating satire. Chaucer's Parish Priest might have been drawn from Wycliffe, from Wycliffe at Lutterworth, not at Oxford, from Wycliffe, not the fierce controversialist, but the affectionate and beloved teacher of his humble flock. The Priest's Tale is a sermon, prolix indeed, but, except in urging confession and holding up the confessorial office of the Priesthood, purely and altogether moral in its scope and language.* The translation of the Romaunt of the Rose, with all its unmitigated bitterness against the Friars, is a further illustration of the religious mind of Chaucer. If we could interpret with any certainty the allegory and the mystic and poetic prose in the Testament of Love, we might hope for more light on the religion and on the later period of Chaucer's life.† It is evident that at that time, towards the close of his life, he was in disgrace and in prison. Other documents show that his pensions or allowances from the Crown were, for a time at least, withdrawn. There is no doubt that his imprisonment arose out of some turbulent and

* I have little doubt that in the Retraction ascribed to Chaucer at the close of this Sermon, Tywhitt is right in that part which he marks for interpolation. Read the passage without it, all is clear.

† Speght in his argument to the

Testament of Love, if it be Speght's. "Chaucer did compile this booke as a comfort to himselfe after great greifes conceived for some rash attempts of the Commons, with which hee had joyned, and thereby was in feare to lose the favour of his best friends."—Frl. 272

popular movements in the City of London. There is every probability that these movements were connected with the struggle to reinvest the Wycliffite (and so long as the Lancastrian party was Wycliffite) Lancastrian Mayor,^o John of Northampton, in the civic dignity. The Londoners were Lollards, and if on the people's side, Chaucer was on the Lollards' side. Chaucer, in his imprisonment, would, like Boethius of old, from whom the Testament of Love was imitated, seek consolation, but his consolation is in religion, not philosophy. His aspiration is after the beautiful and all-excelling Margarita, the pearl of great price, who, like the Beatrice of Dante, seems at once an ideal or idealised mistress, and the impersonation of pure religion. Love alone can bestow on him this precious boon; and divine love, as usual, borrowing some of its imagery and language from human love, purifies and exalts the soul of the poet for this great blessing by imparting the knowledge of God in the works of his power, and the works of his grace and glory. More than this the obstinate obscurity of the allegory refuses to reveal.

We must turn again to Germany, which we left in its intermediate state of slowly dawning Teutonism. Germany, it has been seen, rejected the first free movement of her kindred Teutons in England, because it was taken up with such passionate zeal by the hostile Sclavonians. The reformation in Bohemia, followed by its wild and cruel wars, civil and foreign, threw back the German

^o See the whole very curious but obscure passage, fol. 277. "Then, Lady, I thought that every man that by anye way of right, rightfully done, may helpe any commune (helpe) to been saved." Chaucer was in the secrets of his party, which he was urged to betray. He goes on to speak of the "citie of London, which is to me so deare and sweet, in which I was forth growne; and more kindly love have I to that place than to anye other in yearth."

mind in aversion and terror upon Latin Christianity. Yet Teutonism only slumbered, it was not extinguished; it was too deeply rooted: it had been slowly growing up from its undying root for centuries. The strife of ages between the Emperor and the Pope could not but leave a profound jealousy, and even antipathy, in a great mass of the nation. Throughout there had been a strong Imperialist, a German faction. The haughty aggression of John XXII. (a Pontiff not on the Papal throne at Rome) was felt as a more wanton and unprovoked insult. It was not now the Pope asserting against the Emperor the independence of Italy or of Rome; not defending Rome and Italy from the aggression of Transalpine barbarians by carrying the war against the Emperor into Germany. Louis of Bavaria would never have descended into Italy if the Pope had left him in peace on his own side of the Alps. The shame of Germany at the pusillanimity of Louis of Bavaria wrought more strongly on German pride: the Pope was more profoundly hated for the self-sought humiliation of the Emperor. At the same time the rise of the great and wealthy commercial cities had created a new class with higher aspirations for freedom than their turbulent princes and nobles, who were constantly in league with the Pope against the Emperor, of whom they were more jealous than of the Pope: or than the Prince Bishops, who would set up a hierarchical instead of a papal supremacy. The burghers, often hostile to their Bishops and even to the cathedral Chapters, with whom they were at strife for power and jurisdiction in their towns, seized perpetually the excuse of their papalising to eject their Prelates, and to erect their lower Clergy into a kind of spiritual Republic. The Schism had prostrated the Pope before the temporal power; the Emperor of

Germany had compelled the Pope to summon a Council; at that Council he had taken the acknowledged lead, had almost himself deposed a Pope. It is true that at the close he had been out-manceuvred by the subtle and pertinacious Churchman. Martin V. had regained the lost ground; a barren, ambiguous, delusive Concordat had baffled the peremptory demand of Germany for a reformation of the Church in its head and in its members.^d Yet even at the height of the Bohemian war, dark, deepening murmurs were heard of German cities, German Princes, joining the Antipapal movement. During the Council of Basle, when Latin Christianity was severed into two oppugnant parties, that of the Pope Eugenius IV. and that of the Transalpine reforming hierarchy, Germany had stood aloof in cold, proud neutrality: but for the subtle policy of one man, Æneas Sylvius, and the weak and yielding flexibility of another, the Emperor Frederick III., there might have been a German spiritual nationality, a German independent Church. The Pope was compelled to the humiliation of restoring the Prelate Electors whom he had dared to degrade, to degrade their successors whom he had appointed. Gregory of Heimberg, the representative of the German mind, had defied the Roman Court in Rome itself, had denounced Papal haughtiness to the face of the Pope.^e But for one event, all the policy of Æneas Sylvius, and all the sub-

^d Ranke has written thus (I should not quote in English, if the English were not Mrs. Austin's): "Had this course been persevered in with union and constancy, the German Catholic Church, established in so many great principalities, and splendidly provided with the most munificent endowments,

would have acquired a perfectly independent position, in which she might have resisted the subsequent political storms with as much firmness as England."—*Reformation in Germany*, vol. i. p. 48.

^e Ranke, p. 49. Compare these passages above.

servieney of Frederick III. to him who he supposed was his counsellor, but who was his ruler, had been unavailing. As the aggressive crusade to Palestine gave the dominion of Latin Christendom to the older Popes, so the defensive crusade against the terrible progress of the Turk, which threatened both Teutonic and Latin Christendom, placed the Pope again at the head, not in arms, but in awe and influence, of the whole West. Germany and the Pope were in common peril, they were compelled to close alliance. In justice to Æneas Sylvius, when Pius II., it may be acknowledged that it was his providential sagacity, his not ungrounded apprehension of the greatness of the danger, which made him devote his whole soul to the league against the Ottoman; if it was also wise policy, as distracting the German mind from dangerous meditations of independence, this even with Pius II. was but a secondary and subordinate consideration. The Turk was the cause of the truce of more than half a century between the Papacy and the Empire.

But throughout all that time the silent growth of the German languages, the independent Teutonic thought expressed in poetry, even in preaching, was widening the alienation. During the century and a half in which English Teutonism was resolutely bracing itself to practical and political religious independence, and the English language ripening to its masculine force, with the Anglo-Saxon successfully wrestling for the mastery against the Southern Latin; in Germany a silent rebellious mysticism was growing up even in her cloisters, and working into the depths of men's hearts and minds. The movement was more profound, more secret, and unconscious even among those most powerfully under its influence. There was not only the open insurrection of

Marsilio of Padua and William of Ockham against the Papal or hierarchical authority, and the wild revolt of the Fraticelli; there was likewise at once an acknowledgement of and an attempt to satisfy that yearning of the religious soul for what the Church, the Latin Church, had ceased to supply, which was no longer to be found in the common cloister-life, which the new Orders had ceased to administer to the wants of the people. During this time, too, while Germany luxuriated in the Romance Legend as well as in the Chivalrous Romance, and the Hymn still in some degree vied with the Lay of the Minnesinger, German prose had grown up and was still growing up out of vernacular preaching. From the earliest period some scanty instruction, catechetical or oral, from the glosses or from fragments of the Scripture, had been communicated in German to the people: some German homilies, translated from the Latin, had been in use. But the great impulse was given by the new Orders. The Dominican, Conrad of Marburg, had been forced at times to leave the overcrowded church for the open air, on account of the multitudes which gathered round the fierce Inquisitor, to hear his sermons, to witness the conclusion of his sermons, the burning of a holocaust of heretics. Far different was the tone of the Franciscan Bertholdt of Winterthur,¹ who from 1247 to 1272 preached with amazing success throughout Bavaria, Austria, Moravia, Thuringia. His sermons, taken down by the

¹ Compare Leyser, *Einleitung, Deutsche Predigten des viii. und xiv. Jahrhunderts*, Quedlinburg, 1838, p. xvi., for the life of Bertholdt. Gervinus (*Deutsche Poesie*) writes, "Die Vortreff-

lichkeit der Berthold'schen Predigten, die weit die Schriften Taulers übertrifft."—Vol. II. p. 142. Schmaidt, *Joannes Tauler*, p. 82.

zeal of his hearers, were popular in the best sense; he had the instinct of eloquence; he is even now by the best judges set above Tauler himself. In earnestness, in energy, in his living imagery from external nature, Bertholdt was the popular preacher in the open field, on the hill-side, Tauler the contemplative monk in the pulpit of the cloister-chapel.^a Nor did Bertholdt stand alone in these vivid popular addresses. That which, notwithstanding these examples, was at least inefficiently bestowed by the Church, stirring and awakening vernacular instruction, was prodigally poured forth from other quarters. The dissidents under their various names, and the Beghards, were everywhere. At the beginning of the fourteenth century Alsace was almost in possession of the Brethren and Sisters of the Free Spirit; they were driven out and scattered, but expulsion and dispersion, if it does not multiply the numbers, usually increases the force and power of such communities.^b Mysticism within the Church strove to fill the void caused by their expulsion. Of these Mystics the most famous names are Rysbroeck of Cologne, Master Eckhart, John Tauler, Nicolas of Suso. The life of Tauler will show us the times and the personal influence of these men, and that of their opinions. It occupies all the early part of the fourteenth century.

John Tauler^c was born in Strasburg in 1290. At the age of eighteen the religious youth entered the Dominican cloister. He went to study at Paris; but at Paris the Doctors were ever turning over the leaves of huge books, they cared not for the one book of life.^d

^a Leyser, *Deutsche Predigten*.

^b Joannes Tauler^e von Strasburg, von

^c Schmidt, Tauler, p. 7. In 1317, D. Carl Schmidt. Hamburg, 1841.

there was a violent persecution by John ^d Tauler, p. 3. Quotation from of Ochsenstein, Bishop of Strasburg. Tauler's Sermon in note.

Probably on his return to Strasburg he came under the influence of Master Eckhart. This remarkable man preached in German; countless hearers thronged even to Eckhart's vernacular sermons. But Eckhart was a Schoolman in the incongruous office of a popular preacher; he was more than a Schoolman, he aspired to be a philosopher. His was not a passionate, simple, fervent theology, but the mystic divinity of Dionysius the Areopagite; it approached the Arabic Aristotelian philosophy. He held, indeed, the Creation out of nothing, and in theory repudiated the Eternity of Matter; but Creation seemed a necessity of the divine nature. The Universal could not but be particular; so God was all things, and all things were God. The soul came forth from God, it was an emanation; it had part of the light of God, in itself inextinguishable, but that light required kindling and quickening by divine grace.^m Thus man stands between the spiritual and the corporeal, between time and eternity. God will reveal himself fully, pour himself wholly into the reasonable soul of man. It is not by love but by intelligence that the mystic reunion takes place with God; by knowledge we are one with God; that which knows and that which is known are one. Master Eckhart is the parent of German metaphysical theology. But if Tauler was caught with the glowing language in which Eckhart clothed these colder opinions, he stood aloof from the kindred teaching of the Beghards, with their more pas-

^m See the Chapter on Eckhart, in der innigsten Verbindung mit Gott, Ritter, *Christliche Philosophie*, iv. p. 498, &c. "Eckhart ist mit den Theologen seiner Zeit von der Ueberzeugung durchdrungen, dass die vernünftige Seele des Menschen dazu bestimmt sei des höchsten Gutes, ganz und ohne alle Schmälerung, theilhaftig zu werden . . . Gott soll sich ganz offenbaren, wir ihn ganz erkennen: er soll ganz unser werden."—P. 502.

sionate, more religious Pantheism—the same in thought with Eckhart, more bold and fearless in expression.

But if of itself the soul of Tauler sought a deeper and more fervent faith, the dark and turbulent times would isolate or make such a soul seek its sympathy within a narrower circle. It was the height of the war between John XXII. and Louis of Bavaria, and nowhere did that war rage more violently than in Strasburg. The Bishop John of Ochsenstein was for the Pope, the Magistrates and the people, for the Emperor, or rather for insulted Germany. The Bishop laid his interdict on the city; the Magistrates, the Town Council, declared that the Clergy who would not perform their functions must be driven from the city.^a The Clergy, the Monks, the Friars, were divided: here the bells were silent, the churches closed; there they tolled for prayers, and the contumacious Clergy performed forbidden services. No wonder that religious men sought that religion in themselves which they found not in the church or in the cloister; they took refuge in the sanctuary of their own thoughts, from the religion which was contesting the world. In all the great cities rose a secret unorganised brotherhood, bound together only by silent infelt sympathies, the Friends of God. This appellation was a secession, a tacit revolt, an assumption of superiority. God was not to be worshipped in the church alone, with the Clergy alone, with the Monks alone, in the Ritual, even in the Sacraments; he was within, in the heart, in the life. This and kindred brotherhoods embraced all orders, Priests, Monks, Friars, Nobles, Burghers, Peasants; they had their Prophets and Prophetesses, above

^a "Do soltent su ouch fürbas singen,
Oder aber us der statt springen"

—*Königsheifer Chronicle*, 128-9. Schmidt, p. 14.

See Book XII. c. 7.

all, their Preachers.* Some convents were entirely in their power. In one thing alone they sided with the

* On the "Friends of God," see Schmidt, Anhang. M. Carl Schmidt has now discovered and printed some very curious documents, which throw more full but yet dubious light on the "Friends of God," and their great leader, Nicolas of Basle. They were Mystics to the height of Mysticism: each believer was in direct union with God, with the Trinity, not the Holy Ghost alone. They were not Waldensians. They were faithful to the whole mediæval imaginative creed, Transubstantiation, worship of the Virgin and Saints, Purgatory. Their union with the Deity was not that of Pantheism, or of passionate love; it was rather through the phantasy. They had wonders, visions, special revelations, prophecies. Their peculiar heresy was the denial of all special prerogative to the Clergy, except the celebration of the Sacraments; the layman had equal sanctity, equal communion with the Deity, saw visions, uttered prophecies. Their only sympathy with the Waldensians was Anti-Sacerdotalism. Neither were they Biblical Christians; they honoured, loved the Bible; but sought and obtained revelation beyond it. They rejected one clause of the Lord's Prayer: Temptations were marks of God's favour not to be deprecated. But though suffering was a sign of the Divine Love, it was not self-inflicted suffering. They disclaimed asceticism, self-maceration, self-torture. All things to the beloved were of God; all therefore indifferent, seclusion, poverty. In 1367 Nicolas of Basle, with his twelve friends or disciples (so commanded by a dream),

set forth from the Oberland under the guidance of a dog to find a domicile. After a wild journey over moss and moor, the dog barked and scratched up the earth. They determined to build (with the permission of the Duke of Austria to whom the land belonged) a chapel, with a pleasant chamber for each; here they dwelt, recluses, not monks, under no vows, withdrawn from the world, but well informed of what passed in the world. Eight of them afterwards went into foreign lands, to Hungary, to Italy.

They had other places of retreat, and it should seem multitudes of followers attached to them with more or less intimacy. Nicolas of Basle, as especially inspired, held boundless influence and authority over all, whether "Friends of God," or not, over Tauler, Rulman Meiswin, and others.

As the days of the Church grew darker under the later Popes at Avignon, and during the Schism, visions, dreams multiplied and darkened around them. Nicolas visited Gregory XI. at Rome, he reproved the Pope's inertness, his sins. Gregory, at first indignant, was overawed by the commanding holiness of Nicolas. In 1278 Nicolas with his followers prayed together from the 17th to the 25th of March to God, to dispel the dark weather which overhung the Church. They were directed to "wait." The time of "waiting" lasted to March 25th, 1383. In the mean time they scrupled not to speak with the utmost freedom of the Pope and the Clergy. They disclaimed both Popes. Many awful

Town Councils—in denouncing the unlawfulness, the wickedness of closing the churches against the poor; they rejected the monstrous doctrine that the Pope and the Bishops might withhold the blessings of religion from the many for the sins, or what they chose to call the sins, of the few. Christian love was something higher, holier than Bishop or than Pope. John Tauler was an earnest disciple, a powerful apostle of this lofty mysticism; he preached with wonderful success in Strasburg, in some of the neighbouring convents, in towns and villages, in the cities. He journeyed even to Cologne, the seat of this high mysticism; there the famous Rysbroeck taught with the utmost power and popularity. Tauler was often at Basle, where Henry of Nordlingen, who had respected the Papal interdict at Constance, resumed his forbidden functions. Tauler threw aside all scholastic subtleties; he strove to be plain, simple, comprehensible to the humblest understanding; he preached in German, but still with deferential citations in Latin. Tauler sought no Papal licence; it was his mission, it was his imperative duty as a Priest, to preach the Gospel.

But Tauler was to undergo a sterner trial, to be trained in another school. In Basle he had been marked by men of a different cast, the gauge of his mind had been taken, the depth of his heart sounded, his religion weighed and found wanting. In Strasburg appeared a stranger who five times sat at the feet of Tauler, and listened to his preaching with serious, searching earnest-

visions were seen by many believers; many terrible prophecies were sent abroad.

At length Nicolas and some of his chief followers set out as preachers of repentance. In 1393 Martin of Mainz

was burned in Cologne; others in Heidelberg, Nicolas with two of his chief and constant disciples at Vienne in

Dauphny.—See *Die Gottesfreunde des xiv Jahrhunderts* von Carl Schmidt, Iena, 1855.

ness. He was a layman, he sought an interview with Tauler, confessed to him, received the Sacrament at his hands. He then expressed his wish that Tauler would preach how man could attain perfection, that perfection to which he might aspire on earth. Tauler preached his loftiest mysticism. The stern man now spoke with authority, the authority of a more determinate will, and more firm convictions. "Thou art yet in slavery to the letter; thou knowest not the life-giving spirit; thou art but a Pharisee; thou trustest in thine own power, in thine own learning; thou thinkest that thou seekest God's honour, and seekest thine own." Tauler shuddered. "Never man before reproved me for my sins." He felt the spell of a master. "Twelve years," said the layman (who was rebuking the self-righteousness of Tauler!), "I have been toiling to the height of spiritual perfection, which I have now attained, by the study of German writings, by self-mortification and chastisements which have now ceased to be necessary." He gave Tauler certain simple moral rules, counselled him to preach no more, to hear no more confession, to deny himself, and to meditate on the life and death of Christ till he had attained humility and regeneration.^p The stronger, the more positive and peremptory mind subdued the gentler. Tauler, for above two years, despite the wonder of his friends, the taunts of his enemies, was silent. The first time, at the end of that period, when he attempted, under permission (for the inflexible layman watched him unceasingly), he broke down in floods of tears. This stranger was the

A.D. 1340.

^p Dr. Carl Schmidt has taken the whole of this from an old narrative "of a Teacher of Holy Scripture and a Layman," of which he does not doubt the authenticity. It is well translated in Miss Winkworth's *Life and Times of Tauler*, London, 1857.

famous Nicolas of Basle. The secret influence of these teachers, unsuppressed by years of persecution, may appear from the work thus wrought on the mind of Tauler, and from the fact that it was not till towards the close of the century, long after Tauler's death, that Nicolas of Basle, venturing into France, was seized and burned as a heretic at Vienne in Dauphiny.

Tauler adhered to the Church; many of the Waldenses and others did so to escape persecution,^q and to infuse their own zeal; Tauler, it seems, in honesty and simplicity. But from that time the German preaching of Tauler—now unmingled with Latin, in churches, in private assemblies, in the houses of Beguines, in nunneries—was more plain, earnest, and, as usual, flowed from his own heart to the hearts of others. He taught estrangement from the world, self-denial, poverty of spirit, not merely passive surrender of the soul to God, but, with this, love also to the brethren and the discharge of the duties of life. Men were to seek peace, during these turbulent times, within their own souls. He not only preached in German, he published in German, "the following the lowly life of Christ."^r The black plague fell on the city of Strasburg, on Strasburg still under the ban of the Pope. In Strasburg died 16,000, in Basle 14,000 victims. Amid these terrible times of wild visions, wild processions of self-scourged penitents, of crowded cloisters, massacred Jews, the calm voice of Tauler, and of some who spoke and wrote in the spirit of Tauler, rose against the un-

A.D. 1348-9.

^q "Auf diese Weise die Waldenser in die Kirche selber Eingang fanden und auf die berühmtesten Doctoren und nämlich auf Dominicaner, deren Beruf es war die Ketzer zu bekämpfen, so

mächtig wirkten"—Schmidt, p. 37. But M. Schmidt's new authorities show that Nicolas was not a Waldensian.

^r Die Nachfolgung des armen Lebens Christi.

pitiful Church. "A remonstrance was addressed to the Clergy, that the poor, innocent, blameless people were left to die untended, unabsolved, under the interdict, and boldly condemning the Priests who refused them the last consolations of the Gospel." "Christ died for all men; the Pope cannot, by his interdict, close heaven against those who die innocent." In another writing the abuse of the spiritual sword was clearly denounced, the rights of the Electors asserted. The broad maxim was laid down, that "he who confesses the true faith of Christ, and sins only against the person of the Pope, is no heretic." It is said that the people took comfort, and died in peace, though under the Papal interdict. It was for these unforgiven opinions that Tauler and his friends, Thomas of Strasburg, an Augustinian, and Ludolph of Saxony, first a Dominican then a Carthusian, fell under the suspicion of the new Bishop Bertholdt and the Clergy. He had been called to render

A.D. 1348 an account of his faith before Charles IV.,
"the Priests' Emperor," when at Strasburg.
The Mystics were commanded to recant, and to withdraw from their writings these obnoxious tenets.

Tauler disappeared from Strasburg; he was now heard in Cologne; there he taught his own simpler doctrines, and protested against the Pantheistic tenets of the Beghards, and even of those dreamy fanatics who would yield up their passive souls to the working of Divine grace. He returned to Strasburg only to die. His last

A.D. 1361. hours were passed in the garden of the convent in which his only sister had long dwelt, a holy and blameless nun. He sought her gentle aid and consolation. One hard Mystic reproached his weakness

in yielding to this last earthly affection. He was buried in the cloisters, amid the respectful sorrow of the whole city.

Tauler had been dead nearly a century before the close of our History, but his Sermons lived in the memory of men; they were transcribed with pious solicitude, and disseminated among all who sought something beyond what was taught in the Church, or taught by the Clergy; that which the Ritual, performed perhaps by a careless, proud, or profligate Priest, did not suggest; which was not heard in the cold and formal Confessional; which man might learn for himself, teach to himself, which brought the soul in direct relation with God, trained it to perfection, to communion, to assimilation, to unity with God. Herder, perhaps the wisest of German critics, condemns the Sermons of Tauler for their monotony:† “He who has read two of Tauler’s Sermons has read all.”‡ But perhaps in that monotony lay much of their strength. Religious men seek not variety but emotion; it is the key-note which vibrates to the heart. Tauler had Mysticism enough to awaken and keep alive all the most passionate sentiments of religion, yet with a seeming clearness and distinctness as if addressed to the reason; his preaching appeared at least to be intelligible; it addressed the whole man, his imagination, his reason, his affection.

But Tauler’s Mysticism was far beyond the sublime selfishness of the Imitation of Christ: it embraced fully, explicitly the love of others; it resembled the Imitation of a Kempis, in that it was absolutely and entirely per-

† The two latter parts of Dr. Schmidt’s Tauler are on the writings and doctrines of Tauler, illustrated with abundant extracts. Miss Winkworth has well chosen, and rendered well some of his best Sermons. 1857.
‡ Theologische Briefe 41, quoted by Schmidt, p. 84.

sonal religion, self-wrought out, self-disciplined, self-matured, with nothing necessarily intermediate between the grace of God and the soul of man. The man might be perfect in spirit and in truth within himself, spiritualised only by the Holy Ghost. Tauler's perfect man was a social being, not a hermit; his goodness spread on earth, it was not all drawn up to heaven. Though the perfect man might not rise above duties, he might rise above observances; though never free from the law of love to his fellow-creatures, he claimed a dangerous freedom as regarded the law and usage of the Church, and dependence on the ministers of the Church. Those who were content with ritual observances, however obedient, were still imperfect; outward rites, fastings, were good as means, but the soul must liberate itself from all these outward means. The soul, having discharged all this, must still await in patience something higher, something to which all this is but secondary, inferior; having attained perfection, it may cast all these things away as unnecessary. Tauler's disciple respects the laws of the Church because they are the laws of the Church; he does not willingly break them, but he is often accused of breaking them when intent on higher objects. But the whole vital real work in man is within. Penance is nought without contrition; "Mortify not the poor flesh, but mortify sin." Man must confess to God; unless man forsakes sin, the absolution of Pope and Cardinals is of no effect; the Confessor has no power over sin. Tauler's religion is still more inflexibly personal: "His own works make not a man holy, how can those of others? Will God regard the rich man who buys for a pitiful sum the prayers of the poor? Not the intercession of the Virgin, nor of all the Saints, can profit the unrepentant sinner."

All this, if not rebellion, was sowing the seeds of rebellion against the sacerdotal domination; if it was not the proclamation, it was the secret murmur preparatory for the assertion of Teutonic independence.

Tauler lived not only in his writings; the cherished treasure of Mysticism was handed down by minds of kindred spirit for nearly two centuries. When they were appealed to by Luther as the harbingers of his own more profound and powerful religiousness, the Friends of God subsisted, if not organised, yet maintaining visibly if not publicly their succession of Apostolic holiness.

Ten years after the death of Tauler, Nicolas of Basle, not yet having ventured on his fatal mission into France, is addressing a long and pious monition to the Brethren of St. John in Strasburg.*

Near the close of the century, Martin, a Monk, was arraigned at Cologne as an infatuated disciple of Nicolas of Basle.⁷ From this process it appears that many Friends of God had been recently burned at Heidelberg.⁸ The heresies with which Martin is charged are obviously misconceptions, if not misrepresentations, of the doctrine of perfection taught by Tauler and by most of the German Mystics.

* Schmidt, Anhang 5, p. 233, dated 1377.

⁷ "Quod quidam Laicus nomine Nicolaus de Basilea, cui te funditus submisisti, clarius et perfectius evangelium quam aliqui Apostoli, et beatus Paulus hoc intellexerit quod prædicto Nicolao ex perfectione submissionis sibi facta contra præcepta cujusunque Prælati etiam Papæ licite et sine peccato obedire."—He was accused of having said, That he was

restored to his state of primitive innocence, emancipated from obedience of the Church, with full liberty to preach and administer the Sacraments without licence of the Church. Of course the charge was darkened into the grossest Antinomianism.

⁸ 1393. "Quod judicialiter convicti et per ecclesiam condemnati ac impenitentes heretici aliquando in Heidelbergâ concremati fuerunt et sunt amici Dei."—Anhang 6, p. 238.

Tauler was thus only one of the voices, if the most powerful and influential, which as it were appealed directly to God from the Pope and the Hierarchy; which asserted a higher religion than that of the Church; which made salvation dependent on personal belief and holiness, not on obedience to the Priest; which endeavoured to renew the long-dissolved wedlock between Christian faith and Christian morality; and tacitly at least, if not inferentially, admitted the great Wycliffite doctrine, that the bad Pope, the bad Bishop, the bad Priest, was neither Pope, Bishop, nor Priest. It was an appeal to God, and also to the moral sense of man; and throughout this period of nearly two centuries which elapsed before the appearance of Luther, this inextinguishable torch passed from hand to hand, from generation to generation. Its influence was seen in the earnest demand for Reformation by the Councils; the sullen estrangement, notwithstanding the reunion to the sacerdotal yoke, during the Hussite wars; the disdainful neutrality when reformation by the Councils seemed hopeless; it is seen in the remarkable book, the "German Theology," attributed by Luther to Tauler himself, but doubtless of a later period.* Ruder and coarser works, in all the jarring and various dialects, betrayed the German impatience, the honest but homely popular alienation from ecclesiastical dominion, and darkly foreshowed that when the irresistible Revolution should come, it would be more popular, more violent, more irreconcilable.

* Two translations have recently appeared. It was not so much what it taught as "German Theology," but what it threw aside as no part of genuine Christian Faith. appeared in England of this book, of which the real character and importance cannot be appreciated without a full knowledge of the time at which it

CHAPTER VIII.

Christian Architecture.

LITERATURE was thus bursting loose from Latin Christianity; it had left the cloister to converse with men of the world; it had ceased to be the prerogative of the Hierarchy, and had begun to expatiate in new regions. In Italy ere long, as in its classical studies, so in the new Platonism of Marsilius Ficinus and the Florentine school, it almost threatened to undermine Christianity, or left a Christianity which might almost have won the assent of the Emperor Julian. In all the Teutonic races it had begun to assert its freedom from sacerdotal authority; its poets, even its preachers, were all but in revolt.

But Art was more faithful to her munificent patron, her bold and prolific creator, her devout wor-
shipper. Of all the arts Architecture was that Architecture faithful to the Church. which owed the most glorious triumphs to Christianity. Architecture must still be the slave of wealth and power, for majestic, durable, and costly buildings can arise only at their command; and wealth and power were still to a great extent in the hands of the Hierarchy. The first sign and prophetic omen of the coming revolution was when in the rich commercial cities the town halls began to vie in splendour with the Churches and Monasteries. Yet nobler gratitude, if such incentive were possible, might attach Architecture to the cause of the Church. Under the Church she had perfected old forms, invented new; she had risen to an unrivalled

majesty of design and skill in construction. In her stateliness, solemnity, richness, boldness, variety, vastness, solidity, she might compete with the whole elder world, and might almost defy future ages.

Latin Christianity, during a period of from ten to twelve centuries, had covered the whole of Western Europe with its still multiplying Churches and religious buildings. From the Southern shores of Sicily to the Hebrides and the Scandinavian kingdoms, from the doubtful borders of Christian Spain to Hungary, Poland, Prussia, not a city was without its Cathedral, surrounded by its succursal churches, its monasteries, and convents, each with its separate church or chapel. There was not a town but above the lowly houses, almost entirely of wood, rose the churches, of stone or some other solid material, in their superior dignity, strength, dimensions, and height; not a village was without its sacred edifice: no way-side without its humbler chapel or oratory. Not a river but in its course reflected the towers and pinnacles of many abbeys; not a forest but above its lofty oaks or pines appeared the long-ridged roof, or the countless turrets of the conventual church and buildings. Even now, after periods in some countries of rude religious fanaticism, in one, France (next to Italy, or equally with Italy prodigal in splendid ecclesiastical edifices), after a decade of wild irreligious iconoclasm; after the total suppression or great reduction, by the common consent of Christendom, of monastic institutions, the secularisation of their wealth, and the abandonment of their buildings to decay and ruin; our awe and wonder are still commanded, and seem as if they would be commanded for centuries, by the unshaken solidity, spaciousness, height, majesty, and noble harmony of the cathedrals and churches

throughout Western Europe. We are amazed at the imagination displayed in every design, at the enormous human power employed in their creation; at the wealth which commanded, the consummate science which guided that power; at the profound religious zeal which devoted that power, wealth, and science to these high purposes.

The progress and development of this Christian Architecture, Roman, Byzantine, Romanesque or Lombard, Norman, Gothic in its successive forms, could not be compressed into a few pages: the value of such survey must depend on its accuracy and truth, its accuracy and truth on the multiplicity and fulness of its details and on the fine subtlety of its distinctions, and might seem to demand illustrations from other arts. It is hardly less difficult to express in a narrow compass the religious, hierarchical, and other convergent causes which led to the architectural Christianisation of the West in its two great characteristic forms. These forms may perhaps be best described as Cisalpine (Italian) and Transalpine (Gothic), though neither of them respected the boundary of the other, and the Teutonic Gothic in the North arose out of the Southern Romanesque.

Our former history has surveyed Christian Architecture in its origin; it has traced the primitive form of the churches in the East;* so far as they differed in their distribution from the Western, resembling the Pagan rather than the Jewish temple, yet of necessity assuming their own peculiar and distinct character. It has seen in the West the Basilica, the great hall of imperial justice, offering its more commodious plan and arrangements, and becoming, with far less alteration a

* History of Christianity, vol. ii. p. 239. Church of Tyre, described by Eusebius

Christian edifice for public worship and instruction.^b This first epoch of Christian Architecture extended, even after the conversion of Constantine and the building of Constantinople, to the reign of Justinian, under whom Byzantine Architecture, properly so distinguished, drew what may be called the architectural division between the East and the West. Even in Architecture the Greek and Latin Churches were to be oppugnant; though the Byzantine, as will appear, made a strong effort, and not without partial success, to subjugate the West.

To Rome, not to Greece, Christian Architecture owed its great elementary principle, the key-stone, Roman architecture as it were, to all its greatness; and this principle was carried out with infinitely greater boldness and fulness in the West than in the East. And surely it is no fanciful analogy that, as the Roman character contributed so powerfully to the great hierarchical system of the West, so the Roman form of building influenced most extensively Christian Architecture, temporarily and imperfectly that of the East, in perpetuity that of the Latin world. After a few centuries the more dominant hierarchism of the West is manifest in the oppugnancy between Greek and Latin Church Architecture. The East, having once wrought out its architectural type and model, settled down in unprogressive, uncreative acquiescence, and went on copying that type with servile and almost undeviating uniformity. In the West, within certain limits, with certain principles, and with a fixed aim, there was freedom, progression, invention. There was a stately unity, unity which seemed to imply immemorial antiquity, and

^b Vol. ii. pp. 340, 343, and vol. iii. p. 373.

to aspire to be an unalterable irrepealable law for perpetuity, in the form and distribution, in the proportions and harmony of the sacred buildings; but in the details, in the height, the dimensions, the character, the ornaments, the mechanical means of support, infinite inexhaustible variety; it ranged from the most bare and naked Romanesque up to the most gorgeous Gothic.^c

Latin Christianity by its centralisation, its organisation arising out of Roman respect for law and usage, its rigid subordination, its assertion of and its submission to authority, with a certain secondary freedom of action, had constituted its vast ecclesiastical polity; so one great architectural principle carried out in infinite variety and boundless extent, yet in mutual support and mutual dependence, that of the Arch (if not absolutely unknown, of rare and exceptional application among the Greeks), had given solidity and stability to the gigantic structures of Rome, which spread out and soared above each other in ambitious unending rivalry. Hence the power of multiplying harmonious parts, of inclosing space to almost infinite dimensions, of supporting almost in the air the most ponderous roofs, of making a vast

^c Compare Hope on Architecture, p. 59. All that has been discovered of the knowledge and use of the Arch in Egypt and in other countries, tends to the same result as that to which Mr. Hope arrived: "The Arch which the Greeks knew not, or if they knew, did not employ." So with other nations. It was first among the Romans an elementary and universal principle of construction. It is impossible not to refer with respect to the first modern philosophical and comprehensive work on Architecture, that by the author of

Anastasius. Some collections, manifold details, much scientific knowledge, have been added by the countless writers on Christian Architecture, of which England has furnished her full share,—Whewell, Willis, Petit, the Author of the Glossary of Architecture, the late Mr. Gaily Knight. But who of all these will not own his obligations to Mr. Hope? The recollection of much friendly kindness in my youth enhances the pleasure with which I pay this tribute to a man of real and original genius.

complicated whole, one in design, one in structure, one in effect. The Greek temples and the Roman temples on the Greek model, limited in size and extent by the necessity of finding support for horizontal pressure, were usually isolated edifices, each in its exquisite harmony and perfection, complete, independent, simple. If they were sometimes crowded together, as in the Acropolis of Athens, or the Forum at Rome, yet each stood by itself in its narrow precincts; it was a separate republic, as it were the domain and dwelling of its own God, the hall of its own priesthood.

But through that single principle of the Arch the Roman had attained a grandeur and vastness of construction as yet unknown. It was not like the colossal fanes of Egypt, either rocks hewn into temples, or rocks transported and piled up into temples; or the fabrics supported on the immense monolithic pillars in the Eastern cities (which the Romans themselves in the time of the Antonines and their successors rivalled at Baalbec and Palmyra); nor yet the huge terraced masses of brickwork in the further East. The transcendant and peculiar Architecture of the Romans was seen in their still more vast theatres and amphitheatres, which could contain thousands and thousands of spectators; in their Cæsarean palaces, which were almost cities; in their baths, in which the population of considerable towns, or whole quarters of Rome, found space not for bathing only, but for every kind of recreation and amusement; in their bridges, which spanned the broadest and most turbulent rivers; and their aqueducts, stretching out miles after miles, and conveying plentiful water to the central city. It remained only to apply this simple, universal principle. By resting not the horizontal entablature, but the succession of arches

on the capitals of the pillars, the length might be infinitely drawn out; the roof, instead of being limited in its extent by the length of the rafters, might be vaulted over and so increased enormously in width; and finally, suspended as it were in the air, soar to any height.

Christian Architecture, when the world under Constantine became Christian, would of course begin to display itself more boldly, more ostentatiously. It would aspire to vie with the old religion in the majesty of its temples. Not but that long before it had its public sacred edifices in the East and the West. Still it would be some time before it would confront Paganism, the Paganism of centuries. It must still in vastness and outward grandeur submit to the supremacy of the ancestral temples of the city. The Basilica, too, in its ordinary form, though in its length, height, and proportions there might be a severe and serious grandeur, was plain. A high unadorned wall formed its sides, its front was unbroken but by the portals: it had not its splendid rows of external columns, with their interchanging light and shade; nor the rich and sculptured pediment over its entrance. Constantine, before his departure to the East, erected more than one church, no doubt worthy of an imperial proselyte, for the new religion of the empire. But earthquakes, conflagrations, wars, tumults, the prodigal reverence of some Popes, the vast ambition of others, have left not a vestige of the Constantinian buildings in Rome. The Church of the Lateran, thrown down by an earthquake, was rebuilt by Sergius III. That built in honour of St. Peter^a (it was asserted and believed over the place

^a On the old St. Peter's see the curious work of Bonnami, *Historia Templi Vaticani* (Roma, 1706), and the elaborate chapter in Bunsen and Plüner, *Röm's Beschreibung*.

of his martyrdom), with its splendid forecourt and its five aisles, which to the time of Charlemagne, though the prodigal piety of some Popes had no doubt violated its original, it should seem, almost cruciform, outline, and sheathed its walls in gold and precious marbles, yet maintained the plan and distribution of the old church. It stood, notwithstanding the ravages of the Saracens, the sieges of the Emperors, the seditions of the people, on its primitive Constantinian site for many hundred years after, and was only swept away by the irreverent haughtiness of Julius II., to make way for what was expected to, and which does, command the universal wonder of mankind, the St. Peter's of Bramante and Michael Angelo. The noble church of St. Paul, without the walls, built by Theodosius the Great, stood as it were the one majestic representative of the Imperial Christian Basilica till our own days.* The ground plan of the Basilica must be sought in the humbler Church of S. Clemente,[†] which alone retains it in its integrity: S. Maria Maggiore, S. Lorenzo, and one or two others, have been so overlaid with alterations as only to reveal to the most patient study distinct signs of their original structure.

Constantinople rose a Christian city, but a Christian city probably in most parts built by Roman hands, or by Greeks with full command of Roman skill and science, and studiously aspired to be an eastern Rome. As her Senators, her Patricians, so probably many of her architects and artists came from Rome; or if

* The author saw this stately and venerable building in the summer of 1822; it was burned down in July, 1823.

[†] See the S. Clemente in Mr. Gally

Knight's splendid and munificent work; which has the rare excellence, that the beauty of the engravings does not interfere with their scrupulous accuracy.

Greeks, were instructed and willing to conform to Roman habits and usage. The courtiers of Constantinople, who migrated from the old to the new Rome, were surprised, it is said, to find palaces so closely resembling their own, that they hardly believed themselves to have been transported from the banks of the Tiber to the shores of the Bosphorus. Constantine himself was a Western by birth and education; Rome therefore, rather than the East, would furnish the first model for the Christian Churches. In old Byzantium there were probably few temples of such magnificence as to tempt the Christians to usurp them for their own uses, or allure them to the imitation of their forms. Nor did such temples, dilapidated and deserted, as in later times in Rome and Italy, furnish inexhaustible quarries from which triumphant Christianity might seize and carry her legitimate spoils. There were not at hand rows of noble pillars, already hewn, fluted or polished, with their bases and capitals, which, accustomed to form the porch, or to flank the heathen temple, now took their stand along the nave of the church, or before the majestic vestibule. Though Constantine largely plundered other works of art, statues of bronze or marble (somewhat incongruous heathen ornaments of a Christian city), yet he can have had no great quantity of materials from old temples, unless at much cost of freight from more remote cities, to work up in his churches.⁸ On the other hand neither were there many, if there was a single Basilica, such as were found in most Italian cities, ready to undergo the slight necessary transmutation. Yet there can be no doubt that the first churches in Constantinople were in the Basilican form; that S.

⁸ See Hist. of Christianity, ii. p. 328.

Sophia was of an oblong shape there is satisfactory authority; it was not till the reign of Constantius that the area was enlarged to a square.^b

This, then, which may be called the Roman or Basilican; may be considered as the first Age of Christian Architecture.

II. Of true Byzantine Architecture Justinian was the parent. Time, earthquakes, seditions nowhere so furious and destructive as in Constantinople, especially the famous one in the reign of Justinian; more ambitious or more prodigal Emperors, or more devout and wealthy Christians, denied duration to the primitive Churches of Constantinople. The edifices of Constantine, in all likelihood hastily run up, and, if splendid, wanting in strength and solidity, gave place to more stately and enduring churches. The S. Sophia of Constantine was razed to the ground in a fierce tumult; but on its site arose the new S. Sophia, in the East the pride, in the West the wonder, of the world.ⁱ The sublime unity and harmony of the design, above all the lightness and vastness of the cupola, were too marvellous for mere human science. Even the skill of the famous architects Anthi-

^b It was of great length, *δρόμικος*, the form of a *Diomos*, or *Circus* for races. See Ducange, *Descriptio S. Sophiæ*; and also on the enlargement by Constantius. The Church in the *Blachernæ*, built so late as Justin, had straight rows of pillars and a timber roof. The Church of S. John Studius, still existing, is of the Basilican form of that period.—Schnaase, *Geschichte der Bildenden Kunst*, iii. p. 123, note. On the other hand the Church of An-
tioch, described by Eusebius and by Theophilus, was an octagon, as was

that of Nazianzum — Schnaase, p. 124. The round form, not unknown in the East, nor in the West, as that of S. Constanza near Rome, was more used for Baptisteries, and for monumental chapels, as the tomb of Galla Placidia at Ravenna.

ⁱ To the poem of Paulus Silentarius, on the building and dedication of S. Sophia (Edition Bonn), are appended the laborious dissertation of Ducange, and the perspicuous illustrative essay of Banduri. They contain everything relating to the structure.

mus of Tralles and Isidore of Miletus were unequal to the conception. An angel revealed to the Emperor (Justinian himself must share in the glory) many of the forms of the building; the great principle of the construction of the cupola, sought in vain by the science of the architects, flashed across the mind of the Emperor himself in a dream. The cupola did not seem, according to the historian Procopius, to rest on its supports, but to be let down by a golden chain from heaven.^k Santa Sophia was proclaimed in the West as the most consummate work of Christian Architecture.^m

But Justinian was not content to be the founder and lawgiver of Christian art; as in empire, so he aspired in all things, to bring the whole Roman world under his dominion. To conquered Italy he brought back the vast code of the Civil Law, which he had organised and adapted to Christian use; to Italy came also his architecture, an immense amplification of the Roman arch, which was to be, if not the law, the perfect form of the Christian Church. San Vitale arose in Ravenna, the Constantinople of the West. In dimensions only and in the gorgeousness of some of its materials, San Vitale must bow before its Byzantine type Santa Sophia, but

“τούτου δε τοῦ κυκλοτεροῦς καμ-
μεγέθους ἐπαναστηκυῖα τις σφαιροει-
δὴς θόλος ποιεῖται, αὐτὸν διαφέροντως
εὐπρόσωπον δοκεῖ δὲ οὐκ ἐπὶ στεβρᾷς
τῆς οἰκοδομίας διὰ τὸ παρεμμένον τῆς
οἰκοδομίας ἑστάναι, ἀλλὰ τῇ σείρητῃ
χρῆσθαι ἀπὸ τοῦ οὐρανοῦ ἐξημμένη κα-
λύπτειν τὸν χώρον.—Procop. de *Edif*
i. p. 177, Edit. Bonn

^m “Cujus opus adeo cuncta ædificia
excellit ut in totis terrarum spatibus
suis simile non possit inveniri.”—Paul
Warnefrid. S. Sophia and some other

Constantinopolitan churches have be-
come better known during the last
year (1854) from the splendid work
published by M. Salzenberg, at the
expense of the King of Prussia. An
Italian architect, M. Fossato, having
been intrusted with the repairs, the whole
structure has been surveyed, measured,
and drawn. Many mosaics covered up
since the transmutation into a mosque
have for a time revealed again in all
their brilliancy some very remarkable
specimens of Byzantine mosaic art.

it closely resembled it in plan and arrangement. The Mosaics of the Emperor and of the Empress Theodora in the choir might seem as though they would commend San Vitale as the perfect design for a Christian Church to subject Italy and to the West. Rome indeed might seem, even in Ravenna, to offer a more gallant resistance to the arts than to the arms of Justinian. To San Vitale she would oppose the noble S. Apollinaris, in her own Basilican form. Of the ancient Basilicas, since the destruction of St. Paul without the walls at Rome, S. Apollinaris at Ravenna, with its twenty-four columns of rich Greek marble from Constantinople, and its superb mosaics, is undoubtedly the most impressive and august in the world.ⁿ

Thus, then, there were two forms which contested for the supremacy in Italy. One was the old Roman Basilica, with its stately length, which by slow and imperceptible degrees became cruciform by the extension into transepts of the space between the end of the nave (where rose a great arch, called the Arch of Triumph, as opening upon the holy mysteries of the faith), and the conch or apse, before which stood the high altar. The other was square or octagon, which in the same manner and by the same slow process broke into the short equal-limbed Greek cross.^o This latter form, with the cupola, was the vital distinction of the Byzantine style.^p Rome remained faithful to her

ⁿ See this church in Gally Knight.

^o It is not known when the form of the Cross began. Mr. Gally Knight observes that the form of the Cross was for many centuries the exception rather than the rule.

^p Procopius states of S. Sophia, ἔπος δὲ αὐτῆς καὶ μῆκος οὕτως ἐν ἐκτε-

δείφειν τετορνέεται, ὥστε καὶ περιμήκης, καὶ ὅλως εὐρεία οὐκ ἀπὸ τρόπου εἰρήσεται, p. 174.—So too that of S. Mary and S. Michael, c. iii. p. 174. S. Anthimus, c. vi. p. 194. That of the Apostles was a Greek Cross, c. iii. p. 168.

ancient basilican form; but in many of the cities of Northern Italy the more equal proportion of the length and width, with the central cupola, sometimes multiplied on the extended limbs of the transept; these, the only creations of Byzantine architecture, found favour. Venice early took her eastern character; the old church of S. Fosca in Torcello, in later times St. Mark's maintained the Byzantine form.^a St. Mark's, with her Greek plan, her domes, her mosaics, might seem as if she had prophetically prepared a fit and congenial place for the reception of the spoils of the Constantinopolitan Churches after the Latin conquest. But many other of the Lombard Churches, in Pavia, Parma, the old cathedral at Brescia, were square, octagon, or in the form of the Greek cross. As late as the tenth century Ancona, still a Greek city, raised the Church of S. Cyriac, with much of what is called Lombard, more properly Romanesque ornament, but in form a strictly Byzantine Church.^r

Yet on the whole the architectural, as the civil conquests of Justinian, were but partial and un-
 enduring. The Latin Architecture, with these Difference of Greek and Latin services. exceptions, even in Italy, adhered to the Basilican form or to the longer Latin cross: beyond the Alps the square form was even more rare. But it is singular to observe in both the development of the hierarchical principle according to the character and circumstances of the Eastern and the Western Church. As the worship throughout Christendom became more local, more

^a The round churches, which were few, gave place to Baptisteries, for which or for sepulchral chapels they were mostly originally designed.

^r It is curious that Charlemagne's cathedral at Aix-la-Chapelle is the one true Byzantine church or type of a

Byzantine church beyond the Alps—in form, construction, even in mosaics. Charlemagne had perhaps Greek architects, he had seen Ravenna, he drew ornaments and materials from Ravenna. Compare Schnaase, vol. xiv. 446. et seqq.

material, the altar was now the Holy of Holies, the actual abode of the Real Presence of Christ. The Clergy withdrew more entirely into their unapproachable sanctity; they would shroud themselves from all profane approximation by solemn mystery, the mystery which arises from remoteness, from obscurity or dimness, or even from secrecy. For this end, to heighten the awe which he would throw around the tremendous sacrifice, and around himself the hallowed minister of that sacrifice, the Greek, in himself less awful, had recourse to artificial means. The Latin trusted to his own inherent dignity, aided only by more profound distance, by the splendour which environed him, splendour more effective as heightened by surrounding darkness. The shorter Greek cross did not repel the adoring worshipper far enough off; the Greek therefore drew a veil. At length he raised a kind of wall between himself and the worshippers, and behind, in that enclosed sanctuary, he performed the mystery of consecration, and came forth and showed himself in turn at each of the side doors of the Holy of Holies, rarely at the central or royal gate, with the precious paten and chalice in his hands. When the service was over, he withdrew again with his awful treasure into its secret sanctuary.* In the longer Latin cross the hierarchy might recede to a commanding distance from the great mass of worshippers, yet all might remain open; the light rails of the chancel were sufficient, with their own inherent majesty, to keep the profane on their lower level, and in their humble posture of far-off adoration. In the West the crypt under the altar, to contain the bones of the saint or martyr, was more general; the altar therefore was

* Smith's account of the Greek Church, p. 64. This, called the *Iconostasis*, is general in the Russian churches. There is a curious example at Pesh in Hungary.

more usually approached by a flight of steps, and thus elevation was added to distance: and to distance and elevation were added by degrees the more dazzling splendour of the altar-furniture, the crosses, the candlesticks, the plate, the censers, and all the other gorgeous vessels, their own dresses, the violet, green, scarlet, cloth of gold, the blaze of lamps and tapers, the clouds of incense. At one time the altar and the officiating clergy were wrapped in the mystery of sublime gloom, at the next the whole altar, and all under the stately Baldachin, burst out into a concentrated brilliancy of light. The greater length of the building, with its succursal aisles and ambulatories and chapels, as so admirably adapted for processional services, would greatly promote their introduction and use. The Clergy would no longer be content with dim and distant awe and veneration; this was now inherent in their persons: and so, environed with their sacred symbols, bearing their banners emblazoned with the image of the crucified Redeemer, of the Virgin, of the Saints, and the crosses, the emblems of their own authority and power, and in their snow-white or gorgeous dresses, they would pass through the rows of wondering and kneeling worshippers, with their grave and solemn chant, or amid the peals of the thundering organ, bringing home, as it were, to the hearts of all, the most serious religious impressions, as well as those of their own peculiar inalienable sanctity.

But the oppugnancy was not only in the internal form and arrangements of the sacred buildings or the more effective display of ecclesiastic magnificence. In splendour of dress, in the richness of their church furniture and vessels, in the mysterious symbolism of their services, the East boasted itself even superior to the

West. But the more vigorously developed hierarchical spirit among the Latins displayed itself in nothing more than in its creativeness, in its progressive advancement in Christian Architecture. The Emperors were in general the founders and builders of the great Eastern Churches, in the West to a vast extent the Church herself. Though kings and nobles were by no means wanting in these signs of prodigal piety—the Catholic Lombard kings, the priest-ruled Merovingians, Charlemagne and his descendants, the sovereigns in England—there were also, besides these royal and noble devotees, the magnificent Prelates, the splendid Abbots, the opulent Chapters. In the East it was the State acting it might be under the influence, in obedience to, or at the suggestion of the Priesthood; in the West, with the Monarch and the Baron, it was the whole ecclesiastical

Wealth of
the clergy.

Order out of its own enormous wealth, its own vast possessions, and still accumulating property. From the seventh at least to the close of the fourteenth century this wealth was steadily on the increase, at times pouring in like a flood; if draining off, draining but in narrow and secret channels. It was in the nature of things that a large portion of this wealth should be consecrated, above all others, to this special use. It had long been admitted that a fifth, a fourth, a third of the ecclesiastical endowments belonged to the sustentation, to the embellishment of the religious fabrics. But it needed no law to enforce on a wide scale this expenditure demanded at once by every holy and generous principle, by every ambitious, among the more far-sighted and politic, as well as by every more sordid, motive. Throughout Christendom there was the high and pure, as well as the timid and superstitious religion, which invited, encouraged, commanded, exacted, pro-

misèd to reward in this world and in the next, these noble works of piety. Without as within the Church these motives were in perpetual, unslumbering activity. Church-building was, as it were, the visible personal sacrifice to God, a sacrifice which could never be fully accomplished; it was the grateful or expiatory oblation to the Redeemer and to the Saints. The dying king, the dying noble, the dying rich man, or the king, noble, or rich man, under strong remorse during his lifetime, might with more lofty and disinterested urgency be pressed by the priest or the confessor to make the bequest or the gift to a holy work in which the clergy had no direct advantage, and which was in some sort a splendid public benefaction. The Church was built for the poor, for the people, for posterity. What the splendour of the old Asiatic monarchs had done for the perpetuation of their own luxury and glory, the Egyptians for their burying-places, as well as in honour of their gods; what the narrower patriotism of the Greeks for the embellishment of their own cities, for the comfort and enjoyment of the citizens: what the stern pride of the older, the enormous wealth and ostentation of the later republicans at Rome; what the Pagan Emperors had done, the elder Cæsars, to command the wonder, gratitude, adulation of the mistress of the world; Trajan, Hadrian, the Antonines, from policy, vanity, beneficence, on a wider and more cosmopolitan scale throughout the Empire: what had been thus done in many various ways, was now done by most kings and most rich men in one way alone.* Besides temples the heathen Cæsars had

* Let it be remembered that in Paris, palace in the Louvre. What in comparison were the more sumptuous religious buildings? house of the Templars was stronger if not more magnificent than the King's

raised palaces, theatres, amphitheatres, circuses, baths, roads, bridges, aqueducts, senate-houses, porticoes, libraries, cemeteries. Now the only public buildings, unless here and there a bridge (until the burghers in the commercial cities began to raise their guildhalls), were the church and the castle. The castle was built more for strength than for splendour. Architecture had the Church alone and her adjacent buildings on which to lavish all her skill, and to expend the inexhaustible treasures poured at her feet. To build the Church was admitted at once as the most admirable virtue, as the most uncontested sign of piety, as the fullest atonement for sin, as the amplest restitution for robbery or wrong, as the bounden tribute of the loyal subject of God, as the most unquestioned recognition of the sovereignty and mercy of God.

If these incentives were for ever working without the Church, besides these, what powerful concurrent and subsidiary motives were in action within the Church! Every Prelate, even each member of a Chapter (if he had any noble or less sordid feeling than personal indulgence in pomp and luxury, or the least ecclesiastical public spirit), would feel emulation of his spiritual ancestors: he would delight to put to shame the less prodigal, the more parsimonious, generosity of his predecessor, would endeavour to transcend him in the richness of his oblation to God or to the Patron Saint. He would throw down that predecessor's meaner work, and replace it by something more splendid and enduring. Posthumous glory would assume a sacred character: the Prelate would not be inflexibly and humbly content with obscure goodness, or with the unwitnessed virtues, which would rest entirely on the reward in the world to come. The best and wisest

Incentives
for Church
buildings.

might think that if their names lived on earth with their imperishable Cathedrals, it was a pardonable, if not a pious and laudable ambition. Their own desire of glory would so mingle with what they esteemed the glory of God, as to baffle their discrimination. So too national, municipal, corporate, local pride and interest would disguise themselves as the love of God and man. The fane of some tutelary saint, or some shrine of peculiar holiness or of wonder-working power, which attracted more numerous and more devout pilgrims, as it enriched the Church, the city, the town, the village, so it would demand even from gratitude a larger share of the votive offerings. The Saint must be rewarded for his favours, for his benefits; his church, his chapel, and his shrine must be more splendid, as more splendid would be more attractive; and thus splendour would beget wealth, wealth gladly devote itself to augment the splendour.

Throughout, indeed, there was this latent, and unconscious it might be, but undeniable influence The Church,
The Priests. operating through the whole sacerdotal Order, through the whole Monkhoo*d*, and not less among the more humble Friars. Every church was not merely the house of God, it was also the palace where the religious Sovereign, the Ecclesiastic, from the Pope to the lowliest Parish Priest, held his state; it was the unassailable fortress of his power; it was, I use the word with reluctance, the Exchange where, by the display of his wealth, he immeasurably increased that wealth. To the Ecclesiastic belonged the chancel, not to be entered by unsanctified feet; to him in his solitary or in his corporate dignity, only attended by a retinue of his own Order; his were the costly dresses, the clouds of incense. The more magnificent the church, and the more sumptuous the services, the broader the line which divided

him from the vulgar, the rest of mankind. If he vouchsafed some distinction, some approach towards his unapproachable majesty, as when the Emperor took his seat at the entrance or within the chancel, read the Gospel, and was graciously permitted to perform some of the functions of a Deacon, this but threw back the rest of mankind to more humble distance. Those passages which the haughtiest Popes alleged in plain words, as "Ye are Gods," which was generally read, "Ye are Christs (the anointed of God)," almost revoked, or neutralised in the minds of the Priesthood, the specious reservation that it was God in them, and not themselves, which received these honours. Popular awe and reverence know no nice theological discrimination; at least a large share of the veneration to the Saint or the Redeemer, to God, rested, as it passed, on the Hierarchy. They were recognised as those without whose mediation no prayer passed onward to the throne of grace; they stood on a step, often a wide step, higher in the ascent to heaven. Everywhere, through the whole framework of society, was this contrast, and the contrast was to the advantage of the Hierarchy. The highest and richest Bishop in his episcopal palace might see the castle of the Baron not only in its strength, but in its height, its domains, its feudal splendour, its castellated richness, frowning contemptuously down upon him; he might seem to be lurking, as it were, a humble retainer under its shadow and under its protection. But enter the church! the Baron stood afar off, or knelt in submissive, acknowledged, infelt inferiority; and it was seldom that in the city the cathedral did not outsoar and outspread with its dependent buildings—its baptistery, chapter-house, belfry, cloisters—the rival castle with all its outbuildings. That which in the cathedral city long held

the Ecclesiastics in their separate peculiar majesty, went down in due proportion through the town to the village, to the meanest hamlet. In the feudal castle itself the chapel was almost always the most richly decorated. During war, in the siege, in the boisterous banquet, the chaplain might be self-levelled, or levelled by a lawless chief and lawless soldiery, to a humble retainer; in the chapel he resumed his proper dignity. It was his fault, his want of influence, if the chapel was not maintained in greater decency and splendour than the rude hall or ruder chamber; and reverence to the chapel reacted on the reverence to himself.

Add to all this the churches or chapels of the religious houses, and there was hardly a religious house without its church or chapel, many of them equal or surpassing in grandeur, in embellishment, those of the town or of the city. In a religious foundation the Church could not, for very shame, be less than the most stately and the most splendid edifice. Year after year, century after century, if any part of the monastery was secure from dilapidation, if any part was maintained, rebuilt, re-decorated, it would be the church. The vow of humility the vow of poverty was first tacitly violated, first dis-
d . . . thrown aside, by the severest Order, in honour of God. The sackcloth-clad, bare-foot Friar would watch and worship on the cold stone or the hard board; but within walls enriched with the noblest paintings, tapestried with the most superb hangings, before an altar flashing with the gold pix, with the jewelled vessels, with the rich branching candlesticks. Assisi, not many years after the death of St. Francis, had begun to be the most splendid and highly adorned church in Italy.

Thus then architecture was the minister at once and

servant of the Church, and a vast proportion of the wealth of the world was devoted to the works of architecture. Nor was it in a secular point of view a wasteful pomp and prodigality. If the church was the one building of the priest, so was it of the people. It was the single safe and quiet place where the lowest of the low found security, peace, rest, recreation, even diversion. If the chancel was the Priest's, the precincts, the porch, the nave were open to all; the Church was all which the amphitheatre, the bath, the portico, the public place, had been to the poor in the heathen cities. It was more than the house of prayer and worship, where the peasant or the beggar knelt side by side with the burgher or the Baron; it was the asylum, not of the criminal only, but of the oppressed, the sad, the toil-worn, the infirm, the aged. It was not only dedicated to God; it was consecrated to the consolation, the peace, even the enjoyment of man. Thus was it that architecture was raising all its wondrous structures in the West, if for the advancement of the Hierarchy, so too at the perpetual unsleeping instigation, at the cost, and it should seem under the special direction, of the Hierarchy: for no doubt within the precincts of the cathedral, within the cloister, much of the science of architecture was preserved, perpetuated, enlarged; if the architects were not themselves Ecclesiastics, they were under the protection, patronage, direction, instruction of Ecclesiastics. But it was also of the most indubitable benefit to mankind. Independent of the elevating, solemnising, expanding effects of this most material and therefore most universally impressive of the Fine Arts, what was it to all mankind, especially to the prostrate and down-trodden part of mankind, that though these buildings were God's, they were, in a certain sense, his

own; he who had no property, not even in his own person, the serf, the villain, had a kind of right of proprietorship in his parish church, the meanest artisan in his cathedral. It is impossible to follow out to their utmost extent, or to appreciate too highly the ennobling, liberalising, humanising, Christianising effects of church architecture during the Middle Ages.

III. The third period of Christian architecture (reckoning as the first the Roman Basilica, as the second the proper Byzantine, with its distinctive Greek cross and cupolas) lasted, with the Norman, till the introduction of the Pointed or so-called Gothic in the twelfth century. This style has been called Lombard, as having first flourished in the cities of Northern Italy, which under the later Kings attained unwonted peace and prosperity, and in which the cities rose to industry, commerce, wealth and freedom. Assuredly it was no invention of the rude Lombards, who brought over the Alps only their conquering arms and their hated Arianism. It has been called also Byzantine, improperly, for though it admitted indiscriminately Byzantine and Roman forms and arrangements, its characteristics seem either its own or the traditions of Roman principles, the appropriation and conversion to its use of Roman examples. Its chief characteristic is delight in the multiplication of the arch, not only for the support, but for the ornamentation of the building. Within and without there is the same prodigality of this form. But these rows or tiers of arches, without supporting or seeming to support the roof, or simply decorative, appear to be no more than the degenerate Roman, as seen in the Palace of Diocletian at Spalatro, and usefully as well as ornamentally employed in the Coliseum and in other amphitheatres. Gradually the

Third style.
Lombard.
Byzantine, or
Romanesque

west front of the Church, or the front opposite to the altar, grew into dignity and importance. The central portal, sometimes the three portals, or even five portals, lost their square-headed form, became receding arches, arches within arches, decorated with graceful or fantastic mouldings. Above, tier over tier, were formed rows of arches (unless where a rich wheel or rose window was introduced) up to the broad bold gable, which was sometimes fringed as it were just below with small arches following out its line. Sometimes these arches ran along the side walls; almost always either standing out more or less, or in open arcades, they ran round the semicircular eastern apse. Besides these, slender compound piers or small buttresses are carried up the whole height to the eaves. They arrive at length at the severer model of this form, San Zeno at Verona, or the richer, the San Michele at Lucca. Within the church the pillars, as the models of those in the ancient buildings disappeared (the Roman Corinthian long survived), or rather as the ruins of ancient buildings ceased to be the quarries for churches, gradually lost their capitals. From those sprung the round arches in a bolder or more timid sweep, according to the distance or solidity of the pillars. Above the nave a second row of arches formed the clerestory windows. The roof, in general of timber, was first flat, then curved, at length vaulted. Over the centre of the cross rose the cupola, round, octagon, or of more fanciful forms. In the seventh century the introduction of bells, to summon to the service, drew on the invention of the architect. The dome or cupola was not a convenient form for a belfry. Beside the building it had not been unusual to erect a baptistery, circular or polygonal, such as are still seen in the richest form, and almost rivalling the churches, in Florence and in Parma.

Throughout Lombardy, in most parts of Italy, rose the detached campanile, sometimes round, in general square, terminating at times with a broad flat roof, more rarely towering into a spire. In Italy this third epoch of architecture culminated in the Cathedral of Pisa. It was the oblation of the richest and most powerful city in Italy, at the height of her prosperity, her industry, her commerce, her fame; it was made in the pride of her wealth, in a passion of gratitude for a victory and for rich plunder taken from the Mohammedans in the harbour of Palermo. Pisa found an architect worthy of her profuse magnificence; the name of Boscheto lives in this his unrivalled edifice. It is not only that the cathedral makes one of those four buildings—the Dome, the Baptistery, the Leaning Tower, the Campo Santo—which in their sad grandeur in the deserted city surpass all other groups of buildings in Europe: the cathedral standing alone would command the highest admiration. On the exterior the west front displays that profusion of tiers of arches above arches, arranged with finer proportion, richness, and upward decreasing order, than elsewhere. But its sublimity is within. Its plan, the Latin cross in the most perfect proportion, gives its impressive unity to its central nave, with its double aisles, its aisled transepts, its receding apse. Its loftiness is far more commanding than any building of its class in Italy had as yet aspired to reach. The Corinthian pillars along the nave are of admirable height and proportion; those of the aisles lower, but of the same style. The arches spring boldly from the capitals of the pillars; the triforium above, running down the long nave, is

* The pointed arch from the nave to the transepts is of later date; incongruous but not without effect.

singularly picturesque. While the long, bold, horizontal architrave gives the sedate regularity of the Basilica; the crossings of the transepts, the sweep of the curved apse, even without the effective mosaic of Cimabue, close the view with lines of the most felicitous and noble form.

Nothing can contrast more strongly, in the same architecture, than the Transalpine Romanesque with Pisa.² It is seen in all the old cities on the Rhine (the earliest form in St. Castor at Coblenz), later at Spire, Worms, Mentz, Bonn, the older churches at Cologne; east of the Rhine in the older cities or monasteries, as in Corvey. It is more rude but more bold; these churches might seem the works of the great feudal Prelates; with a severe grandeur, not without richness of decoration, but disdaining grace or luxuriance. They are of vast size, as may beseem Prelate Princes, but of the coarse red or grey stone of the country, no fine-wrought freestone, no glittering marble. The pillars are usually without capitals, or with capitals fantastic and roughly hewn; they would impress by strength and solidity rather than by harmony or regularity. In the south of France this style is traced not only in cathedral cities, but in many very curious parochial churches.³ With few exceptions, it is there more picturesque and fanciful than grand or solemn. In the north of France and in England this architecture received such a powerful impulse from the Normans as almost to form a new epoch in the art.

·IV. That wonderful people the Normans, though without creative power, seemed as it were to throw

² See for the Saxon Romanesque Schnaase.

³ Mr. Pett has published engravings of many of these buildings.

their whole strength and vigour into architecture, as into everything else. They had their kingdoms on the Mediterranean, and on either side of the British Channel. In the South they had become Southern; even in architecture they anticipated from the Mohammedans some approximation to the Gothic, the pointed arch. In the North, on the other hand, as by adopting and domiciling men of Roman or Italian cultivation, they had braced the intellect of the degenerate Church to young energy, and had trained learned Churchmen and theologians, Lanfrancs and Anselms; so taking the form, the structure, the architectural science of universal Latin Christendom, they gave it a grandeur, solidity, massiveness, even height, which might seem intended to confront a ruder element, more wild and tempestuous weather. The Norman cathedrals might almost seem built for warlike or defensive purposes; as though their Heathen ancestors, having in their fierce incursions destroyed church and monastery, as well as castle and town, they would be prepared for any inroad of yet un-Christianised Northmen. That great characteristic of the Norman churches, the huge square central tower, was battlemented like a castle. The whole impression is that of vast power in the architect, unshaken duration in the edifice; it is the building of a Hierarchy which has unfailing confidence in its own strength, in its perpetuity. On the exterior, in the general design there is plainness, almost austerity; the walls, visibly of enormous thickness, are pierced with round arched windows of no great size, but of great depth; the portals are profound recesses, arch within arch resting on short stubborn pillars; the capitals are rude, but boldly projecting; the rich ornaments cut with a vigorous and decisive hand: the zigzag or other

mouldings with severity in their most prodigal richness. In the interior all again is simple to the disdain, in its greater parts, of ornament. The low, thick, usually round pillars, with capitals sometimes indulging in wild shapes, support, with their somewhat low arches, the ponderous wall, in its turn pressed down as it were by the ponderous roof. Such are the works of our Norman Kings, the two abbeys at Caen, Jumieges in its ruins, St. George de Boscherville; such in our island, Durham, parts of Peterborough and Ely, and Gloucester, the two square towers of Exeter. If later and more splendid cathedrals inspire a higher devotion, none breathe more awe and solemnity than the old Norman.*

V. On a sudden, in a singularly short period, the latter half of the twelfth century (though discerning eyes* may trace, and acute minds have traced with remarkable success and felicity, this transition), Christian architecture beyond the Alps, in Germany, in France, in England, becomes creative. Nothing but the distribution and arrangement of the parts of the church remains the same; and even in that respect the church, instead of standing alone or nearly alone, with the other edifices in humble subordination, is crowded around by a multitude of splendid vassals, partaking in all her decorative richness, the Lady chapel and other chapels, the chapter-house, the monastery, the episcopal palace, the cloisters, sometimes the belfry.

In the church not only are there new forms, not only is there a new principle of harmony, not only a constant

* See Mr. Gally Knight's Norman Tour, and 'Normans in Sicily.' Mr. Knight dedicated part of a noble fortune to these studies, illustrating his own excellent judgement by the well-remunerated labours of accomplished artists.

* Dr. Whewell, Mr. Willis, Mr. Petit.

substitution of vertical for horizontal lines, new and most exquisite proportions, an absolutely original character, but new principles of construction seem to have revealed themselves. Architecture is not only a new art, awakening different emotions of wonder, awe, and admiration, but a new science. It has discovered the secret of achieving things which might appear impossible, but which once achieved, seem perfectly simple, secure, justificatory of their boldness, from the perfect balance and equable pressure of every part, pressure disguised as it were, as distributed on a multitude of supports, and locked down by superincumbent weights. Such is the unity, however multifarious, of the whole, that the lightest, though loftiest and most vast Gothic cathedral has a look of strength and duration as manifest, as unquestioned, as the most ponderous and massive Romanesque or Norman.

The rapid, simultaneous, and universal growth of this so-called Gothic, its predominance, like its ^{Rapid rise and extension.} predecessor the Romanesque, through the whole realm of Latin Christendom, is not the least extraordinary fact in the revolution. It has had marked stages of development (now defined with careful discrimination by the able and prolific writers on the art) during several centuries and in all countries, in Germany, France, England, the Netherlands, Spain, even Italy; but its first principles might almost seem to have broken at once on the wondering world. Everywhere the whole building has an upward, it might seem heaven-aspiring tendency; everywhere the arches become more and more pointed, till at length they arrive at the perfect lancet; everywhere the thick and massy walls expand into large mullioned windows; everywhere the diminished solidity of the walls is supported from

without by flying buttresses, now concealed, now become lighter and more graceful, and revealing themselves, not as mere supports, but as integral parts of the building, and resting on outward buttresses; everywhere pinnacles arise, singly or in clusters, not for ornament alone, but for effect and perceptible use; everywhere the roof becomes a ridge more or less precipitate; everywhere the west front becomes more rich and elaborate, with its receding portals covered with niches, which are crowded with statues; everywhere the central tower assumes a more graceful form, or tapers into a spire; often two subordinate towers, or two principal towers, flank the west front; everywhere, in the exuberant prodigality of ornament, knosps, shrine-work, corbels, gurgoyles, there is a significance and a purport. Within the church the pillars along the nave break into graceful clusters around the central shaft; the vaulted roof is formed of the most simple yet intricate ribs; everywhere there are the noblest avenues of straight lines of pillars, the most picturesque crossings and interminglings of arches; everywhere harmony of the same converging lines; everywhere the aim appears to be height, unity of impression, with infinite variety of parts; a kind of heavenward aspiration, with the most prodigal display of human labour and wealth, as an oblation to the temple of God.

The rise of Gothic Architecture, loosely speaking, was contemporaneous with the Crusades.^b It was natural to

^b The theory of Warburton deriving the Gothic Cathedrals from an imitation of the overarching forests of the ancient Germans (he is disposed to go back to the Druids) is curious as illustrating the strange and total neglect of Medieval Church History in this country. Here is a divine of almost unrivalled erudition (Jortin excepted) in his day, who seems to suppose that the Germans immediately, that they emerged from their forests, set to work to build Gothic cathedrals. He must either have supposed Gothic architec-

suppose that the eyes of the pilgrims were caught by the slender, graceful, and richly decorated forms of the Saracenic mosques, with their minarets and turrets. Pointed windows were discovered in ^{The Crusades} mosques, and held to be the models of the Gothic cathedrals. Even earlier, when the Normans were piling up their massy round arches in the North, they had some pointed arches in Sicily, apparently adopted from the Mohammedans of that island.^c But the pointed arch is only one characteristic of Gothic Architecture, it is a vast step from the imitation of a pointed arch or window (if there were such imitation, which is extremely doubtful), to the creation of a Gothic cathedral.^d The connexion of the Crusades was of another kind, and far more powerful; it was the devotion aroused in all orders by that universal movement, which set into activity all the faculties of man; and the riches poured into the lap of the Clergy, which enabled them to achieve such wonders in so short a period. Religion awoke creative genius, genius worked freely with boundless command of wealth.

This apparently simultaneous outburst, and the universal promulgation of the principles, rules, ^{Theory of Guild of Freemasons.} and practice of the Gothic Architecture, has been accounted for by the existence of a vast secret guild of Freemasons,* or of architects.^e Of this guild, either connected with or latent in the monasteries and among the Clergy, some of whom were men of profound architectural science, and held in their pay and in their subservience all who were not ecclesiastics, it is said,

ture of the fourth or fifth century, or quietly annihilated the intervening centuries to the twelfth.

^c Gally Knight, 'Normans in Sicily.'

^d Compare Whewell, 'Architectural Notes,' p. 35.

^e Hope on Architecture.

the centre, the quickening, and governing power was in Rome. Certainly of all developments of the Papal influence and wisdom none could be more extraordinary than this summoning into being, this conception, this completion of these marvellous buildings in every part of Latin Christendom. But it is fatal to this theory that Rome is the city in which Gothic Architecture, which some have strangely called the one absolute and exclusive Christian Architecture, has never found its place; even in Italy it has at no time been more than a half-naturalised stranger. It must be supposed that while the Papacy was thus planting the world with Gothic cathedrals, this was but a sort of lofty concession to Transalpine barbarism, while itself adhered to the ancient, venerable, more true and majestic style of ancient Rome. This guild too was so secret as to elude all discovery. History, documentary evidence maintain rigid, inexplicable silence. The accounts, which in some places have been found, name persons employed. The names of one or two architects, as Erwin of Strasburg, have survived, but of this guild not one word.* The theory is not less unnecessary than without support. Undoubtedly there was the great universal guild, the Clergy and the monastic bodies, who perhaps produced, certainly retained, employed, guided, directed the builders. During this period Latin Christendom was in a state of perpetual movement,

* All the documentary evidence adduced by Mr. Hope amounts to a Papal privilege to certain builders or masons, or a guild of builders, at Como, published by Muratori (Como was long celebrated for its skill and devotion to the art), and a charter to certain painters by our Henry VI. Schwanse (Ge-

schichte der Bildenden Kunst, iv, c. 5) examines and rejects the theory. He cites some few instances more of guilds, but local and municipal. The first guild of masons, which comprehended all Germany, was of the middle of the 15th century.

intercommunication between all parts was frequent, easy, uninterrupted. There were not only now pilgrimages to Rome, but a regular tide setting to and from the East, a concourse to the schools and universities, to Paris, Cologne, Montpellier, Bologna, Salerno: rather later spread the Mendicants. The monasteries were the great caravansaries; every class of society was stirred to its depths; in some cases even the villains broke the bonds which attached them to the soil; to all the abbey or the church opened its hospitable gates. Men skilled and practised in the science of architecture would not rest unemployed, or but poorly employed, at home. Splendid prizes would draw forth competition, emulation. Sacerdotal prodigality, magnificence, zeal, rivalry would abroad be famous, attractive at home; they would be above local or national prepossessions. The prelate or the abbot, who had determined in his holy ambition that his cathedral or his abbey should surpass others, and who had unlimited wealth at his disposal, would welcome the celebrated, encourage the promising, builder from whatever quarter of Christendom he came. Thus, within certain limits, great architects would be the architects of the world, or what was then the Western world, Latin Christendom: and so there would be perpetual progress, communication, sympathy in actual design and execution, as well as in the principles and in the science of construction. Accordingly, foreign architects are frequently heard of. Germans crossed the Alps to teach Italy the secret of the new architecture.⁵ Each nation indeed seems to have worked

⁵ "All countries, in adopting a style with examples, can tell, upon neighbouring style, seem however to be respecting a building, not only to what have worked it with some peculiarities period it belongs, but to what nation, of their own, so that a person conveyed. Much depends on material, much on

out its own Gothic with certain general peculiarities, Germany, France, the Netherlands, England, and later Spain. All seem to aim at certain effects, all recognised certain broad principles, but the application of these principles varies infinitely. Sometimes a single building, sometimes the buildings within a certain district, have their peculiarities. Under a guild, if there had been full freedom for invention, originality, boldness of design, there had been more rigid uniformity, more close adherence to rule in the scientific and technical parts.

The name of Gothic has ascended from its primal meaning, that of utter contempt, to the highest honour; it is become conventional for the architecture of the Middle Ages, and commands a kind of traditionary reverence. Perhaps Teutonic, or at least Transalpine, might be a more fit appellation. It was born, and reached its maturity and perfection north of the Alps. Gothic, properly so called, is a stranger and an alien in Italy. Rome absolutely repudiated it. It was brought across the Alps by German architects; it has ever borne in Italy the somewhat contemptuous name German-Gothic.^h Among its earliest Italian efforts is one remarkable for its history, as built by a French architect with English gold and endowed with benefices in England. The Cardinal Gualo, the legate who placed the young Henry III. on the throne of England, as he came back laden with the grateful or extorted tribute of the island, 12,000 marks of silver, encountered an architect of fame at Paris: he carried the Northern with him to his native Vercelli, where the Church of S. Andrea

the style of sculpture," &c.—Willis on Architecture, p. 11. Mr. Rickman's

book is most instructive on the three styles predominant successively in Eng-

land.—Compare Whewell.

^h Gotico Tedesco. Compare Hope

astonished Italy with its pointed arches, as well as the Italian clergy with the charges fixed for ^{Italian-Gothic.} their maintenance on Preferments in remote ^{and 1212.} England.¹ Assisi, for its age the wonder of the world, was built by a German architect. What is called the Lombard or Italian-Gothic, though inharmonious as attempting to reconcile vertical and horizontal lines, has no doubt its own admirable excellencies, in some respects may vie with the Transalpine. Its costly marbles, inlaid into the building, where they do not become alternate layers of black and white (to my judgement an utter defiance of every sound principle of architectural effect), its gorgeousness at Florence, Sienna, its fantastic grace at Orvieto, cannot but awaken those emotions which are the world's recognition of noble architecture.^k Milan to me, with all its matchless splendour, and without considering the architectural heresy of its modern west front, is wanting in religiousness. It aspires to magnificence, and nothing beyond magnificence. It is a cathedral which might have been erected in the pride of their wealth by the godless Visconti. Nothing can be more wonderful, nothing more graceful, each seen singly, than the numbers numberless, in Milton's words, of the turrets, pinnacles,

¹ Compare on Cardinal Guãlo, vol. vi. p. 81

^k Professor Willis lays down "that there is in fact no genuine Gothic building in Italy."—On Italian Architecture, p. 4. He is inclined to make exceptions for some churches built in or near Naples by the Angevine dynasty. "The curious result is a style in which the horizontal and vertical lines equally predominate, and which, while it wants the lateral extension and repose

of the Grecian and the lofty upward tendency and pyramidal majesty of the Gothic, is yet replete with many an interesting and valuable architectural lesson. It exhibits pointed arches, pinnacles, battlements, tracery and clustered columns, rib-vaultings, and lofty towers, all those characteristics, in short, the bare enunciation of which is considered by many writers to be a sufficient definition of Gothic."—*Ibid.*

statues, above, below, before, behind, on every side. But the effect is confusion, a dazzling the eyes and mind, distraction, bewilderment. The statues are a host of visible images basking in the sunshine, not glorified saints calmly ascending to heaven. In the interior the vast height is concealed and diminished by the shrine-work which a great way up arrests the eye and prevents it from following the columns to the roof, and makes a second stage between the pavement and the vault; a decoration without meaning or purport.

There can be no doubt that the birthplace of true Gothic Architecture was north of the Alps; it should seem on the Rhine, or in those provinces of France which then were German, Burgundy, Lorraine, Alsace, bordering on the Rhine. It was a splendid gift of Teutonism before Germany rose in insurrection and set itself apart from Latin Christendom. North of the Alps it attained its full perfection; there alone the Cathedral became in its significant symbolism the impersonation of mediæval Christianity.

The Northern climate may have had some connexion with its rise and development. In Italy and the South the Sun is a tyrant; breadth of shadow must mitigate his force; the wide eaves, the bold projecting cornice must afford protection from his burning and direct rays; there would be a reluctance altogether to abandon those horizontal lines, which cast a continuous and unbroken shadow; or to ascend as it were with the vertical up into the unslaked depths of the noonday blaze. The violent rains would be cast off more freely by a more flat and level roof at a plane of slight inclination. In the North the precipitate ridge would cast off the heavy snow, which might have lodged and injured the edifice. So, too, within the church the

Italian had to cool and diminish, the Northern would admit and welcome the flooding light. So much indeed did the Gothic Architecture enlarge and multiply the apertures for light, that in order to restore the solemnity it was obliged to subdue and sheathe as it were the glare, at times overpowering, by painted glass. And thus the magic of the richest colouring was added to the infinitely diversified forms of the architecture.

The Gothic cathedral was the consummation, the completion of mediæval, of hierarchical Christianity. Of that mediævalism, of that hierarchism (though Italy was the domain, and Rome the capital of the Pope), the seat was beyond the Alps. The mediæval hierarchical services did not rise to their full majesty and impressiveness, till celebrated under a Gothic cathedral. The church might seem to expand, and lay itself out in long and narrow avenues, with the most gracefully converging perspective, in order that the worshipper might contemplate with deeper awe the more remote central ceremonial. The enormous height more than compensated for the contracted breadth. Nothing could be more finely arranged for the processional services; and the processional services became more frequent, more imposing. The music, instead of being beaten down by low broad arches, or lost within the heavier aisles, soared freely to the lofty roof, pervaded the whole building, was infinitely multiplied as it died and rose again to the fretted roof. Even the incense curling more freely up to the immeasurable height, might give the notion of clouds of adoration finding their way to heaven.

The Gothic cathedral remains an imperishable and majestic monument of hierarchical wealth, power, devotion; it can hardly be absolutely called self-sacrifice, for it built for the honour of God.

Symbolism of
Gothic archi-
tecture.

and of the Redeemer, it was honour, it was almost worship, shared in by the high ecclesiastic. That however has almost passed away; God, as it were, now vindicates to himself his own. The cathedral has been described as a vast book in stone, a book which taught by symbolic language, partly plain and obvious to the simpler man, partly shrouded in not less attractive mystery. It was at once strikingly significant and inexhaustible; bewildering, feeding at once and stimulating profound meditation. Even its height, its vastness might appear to suggest the Inconceivable, the Incomprehensible in the Godhead, to symbolise the Infinity, the incalculable grandeur and majesty of the divine works; the mind felt humble under its shadow as before an awful presence. Its form and distribution was a confession of faith; it typified the creed. Everywhere was the mystic number; the Trinity was proclaimed by the nave and the aisles (multiplied sometimes as at Bourges and elsewhere to the other sacred number, seven), the three richly ornamented recesses of the portal, the three towers. The Rose over the west was the Unity; the whole building was a Cross. The altar with its decorations announced the Real Perpetual Presence. The solemn Crypt below represented the under world, the soul of man in darkness and the shadow of death, the body awaiting the resurrection. This was the more obvious universal language. By those who sought more abstruse and recondite mysteries, they might be found in all the multifarious details, provoking the zealous curiosity, or dimly suggestive of holy meaning. Sculpture was called in to aid. All the great objective truths of religion had their fitting place. Even the Father, either in familiar symbol or in actual form, began to appear, and to assert his property in the sacred building. Already in the

Romanesque edifices the Son, either as the babe in the lap of his Virgin Mother, on the cross, or ascending into heaven, had taken his place over the central entrance, as it were to receive and welcome the worshipper. Before long he appeared not there alone, though there in more imposing form; he was seen throughout all his wondrous history, with all his acts and miracles, down to the Resurrection, the Ascension, the return to Judgment. Everywhere was that hallowed form, in infancy, in power, on the cross, on the right hand of the Father, coming down amid the hosts of angels. The most stupendous, the most multifarious scenes were represented in reliefs more or less bold, prominent, and vigorous, or rude and harsh. The carving now aspired to more than human beauty, or it delighted in the most hideous ugliness; majestic gentle Angels, grinning hateful sometimes half-comic Devils. But it was not only the New and the Old Testament, it was the Golden Legend also which might be read in the unexhausted language of the cathedral. Our Lady had her own chapels for her own special votaries, and toward the East, behind the altar, the place of honour. Not only were there the twelve Apostles, the four Evangelists, the Martyrs, the four great Doctors of the Latin Church, each in his recognised form, and with his peculiar symbol,—the whole edifice swarmed with Saints within and without. on the walls, on the painted windows, over the side altars. For now the mystery was so awful that it might be administered more near to the common eye, upon the altar in every succursal chapel which lined the building: it was secure in its own sanctity. There were the Saints local, national, or those especially to whom the building was dedicated; and the celestial hierarchy of the Areopagite, with its ascending orders, and con-

ventional forms, the winged seraph, the cherubic face. The whole in its vastness and intricacy was to the outward sense and to the imagination what Scholasticism was to the intellect, an enormous effort, a waste and prodigality of power, which confounded and bewildered rather than enlightened; at the utmost awoke vague and indistinct emotion.

But even therein was the secret of the imperishable power of the Gothic cathedrals. Their hieroglyphic language, in its more abstruse terms, became obsolete and unintelligible; it was a purely hierarchical dialect; its meaning, confined to the hierarchy, gradually lost its signification even to them. But the cathedrals themselves retired as it were into more simple and more commanding majesty, into the solemn grandeur of their general effect. They rested only on the wonderful boldness and unity of their design, the richness of their detail. Content now to appeal to the indelible, inextinguishable kindred and affinity of the human heart to grandeur, grace, and beauty, the countless statues from objects of adoration became architectural ornaments. So the mediæval churches survive in their influence on the mind and the soul of man. Their venerable antiquity comes in some sort in aid of their innate religiousness. It is that about them which was temporary and accessory, their hierarchical character, which has chiefly dropped from them and become obsolete. They are now more absolutely and exclusively churches for the worship of God. As the mediæval pageantry has passed away, or shrunk into less imposing forms, the one object of worship, Christ, or God in Christ, has taken more full and absolute possession of the edifice. Where the service is more simple, as in our York, Durham, or Westminster, or even where the old faith prevails, in

Cologne, in Antwerp, in Strasburg, in Rheims, in Bourges, in Rouen, it has become more popular, less ecclesiastical: everywhere the priest is now, according to the common sentiment, more the Minister, less the half-divinised Mediator. And thus all that is the higher attribute and essence of Christian architecture retains its nobler, and in the fullest sense, its religious power. The Gothic cathedral can hardly be contemplated without awe, or entered without devotion.

CHAPTER IX.

Christian Sculpture.

DURING almost all this period Christian Sculpture was accessory, or rather subsidiary to architecture. ^{Christian Sculpture.} The use of Statues was to ornament and enrich the building. In her Western conquests under Justinian, Constantinople sent back no sculptors; only architects with her domes, and her Greek cross, and her splendid workers in mosaic. The prodigality with which Constantine, as Rome of old, despoiled the world to adorn his new city with ancient works of sculpture, put to shame, it should seem, rather than awoke the emulation of Christian Art. We have seen Constantine usurp the form, the attributes, even the statue, of Apollo.^a We have heard even Theodosius do homage to art, and spare statues of heathen deities for their exquisite workmanship. Christian historians, Christian poets, lavish all their eloquence, and all their glowing verse on the treasures of ancient art. They describe with the utmost admiration the gods, the mythological personages, those especially that crowded the baths of Zeuxippus;^b which perished with the old Church of St. Sophia in the fatal conflagration in the fifth year of Justinian. In the Lausus stood the unrivalled Cnidian

^a * History of Christianity, vol. ii. p. 337; iii. 378. The whole passage. Poem, for its age, of much spirit and beauty. See especially the descriptions

^b Cedrenus, v. i. p. 648, Ed. Bonn. of Hecuba and of Homer.—Jacobs, in The Ecphrasis of Christodorus, is a theologia.

Venus of Praxiteles; the Samian Juno of Lysippus;^c the ivory Jove of Phidias. The whole city was thronged with statues of the Emperors and their Queens, of Constantine, Theodosius, Valentinian, Arcadius, and Honorius, Justinian, Leo, Theodora, Pulcheria, Eudocia.^d It is even said that there were marble statues of Arius, Macedonius, Sabellius, and Eunomius, which were exposed to filthy indignities by the orthodox Theodosius.^e It appears not how far Sculpture had dared to embody in brass or in marble the hallowed and awful objects of Christian worship. It should seem indeed that the Iconoclastic Emperors found statues, and those statues objects of adoration, to war upon. Though in the word Iconoclast, the image-breaker, the word for image is ambiguous; still the breaking seems to imply something more destructive than the effacing pictures, or picking out mosaics; it is the dashing to pieces something hard and solid. This controversy in the second Nicene Council comprehends images of brass or stone; one of the perpetual precedents is the statue of the Redeemer said to have been raised at Paneas in Syria.^f The carved symbolic images of the Jewish ark are constantly alleged.^g Those are accursed who compare the images of the Lord and of the Saints to the statues of Satanic Idols.^h If we worship stones as Gods, how do

^c So at least says Cedrenus, p. 564

^d All these will be found in the description of Constantinople by Petrus Gyllius. The work was translated by John Ball, London, 1729.

^e Gyllius, b. ii. c. xxiii.

^f Act. Concil. Nicen. ii. A. D. 787, ἀνδρίαντι τῷ Χριστῷ. It was said to have been raised by the woman cured of an issue of blood, τ. 14; ἔστησαν

δὲ καὶ εἰκόνα—of a certain Saint in an oratory, p. 23.

^g The Sculptura in the Old Testament, p. 45.

^h These are anathematised — τῆς εἰκόνας τοῦ κυρίου καὶ τῶν ἁγίων αὐτοῦ ὁμοίας τοῖς ἔθροισι τῶν σατανικῶν εἰδώλων ὀνομάσαντας· σεντάς καὶ ἁγίας εἰκόνας τὰς ἐκ χρώματων καὶ ψήφιδος καὶ ἐτέρας ὕλης ἐπιτη-

we worship the Martyrs and Apostles who broke down and destroyed idols of stone? The homage paid to the statues of the Emperors was constantly urged to repel the accusation of idolatry. Yet probably statues which represented objects of Christian worship were extremely rare; and when Image-worship was restored, what may be called its song of victory, is silent as to Sculptures: the Lord, the Virgin, the Angels, Saints, Martyrs, Priesthood, take their place over the portal entrance; but shining in colours to blind the eyes of the heretics. To the keener perception of the Greeks there may have arisen a feeling that in its more rigid and solid form the Image was more near to the Idol. At the same time, the art of Sculpture and casting in bronze was probably more degenerate and out of use; at all events it was too slow and laborious to supply the

δείκνυσι ἔχουσις ἐν ταῖς ἀγλαῖς τοῦ Θεοῦ ἐκκλησίαις, ἐν ἱεροῖς σκευῇσι καὶ ἐσθῇσι τοῖχοις τε καὶ σανίσιν, οἴκοις τε καὶ ὁδοῖς, p. 375 In this minute enumeration the first must be statues The letter of Tamasius is less clear: it mentions only painting, mosaics, waxen tablets, and σάνιδες; and in the Treatise of the Patriarch Germanus, published by Mai, Spicilegium, Romanum, vii. p. 62, σάνιδες (qu, reliefs) are mentioned and contrasted with γραφίδες, paintings

Ἐἰ τοῖς λίθους ὡς θεοὺς δοξάζω (if I give really divine worship to these stones, as I am accused) πῶς τιμῶ καὶ προσκυνῶ τοὺς μάρτυρας καὶ ἀποστόλους συντρίψαντας καὶ ἀπολέσαντας τὰ λίθινα βώδια.—The address of Leontius, p. 48.

* See the Poem in the Anthologia (Χριστιανικά Ἐπιγράμματα), Jacobs, i. 28.

ἔλαμψεν ἁκτίς τῆς ἀληθείας πάλιν καὶ τὰς κόρας ἡμίλυνε τῶν ψευδηγόρων ἠῦξεν εὐσεβεῖα, πέπτωκε πλάνη καὶ πίστις ἐνθεῖ, καὶ πλατύνεται χάρις. Ἰδοὺ γὰρ αὖθις Χριστὸς εἰκονισμένος λάμπει πρὸς υἱὸς τῆς καθάρρας τοῦ κράτους, καὶ τὰς σκοτεινὰς αἰρέσεις ἀνατρέπει Τῆς εἰσόδου δ' ὑπερθεῖν, ὡς θεῖα πύλη, στηλογραφεῖται, καὶ φύλαξ, ἡ παρθένος. ἀναξ δὲ καὶ προεδρος, ὡς πλανοτροποὶ σὺν τοῖς συνεργοῖς ἱστοροῦνται πλησίον κύκλῳ δὲ παντὸς οἷα φρουροὶ τοῦ δόμου, νοεῖς (Angeli) μαθηταί, μάρτυρες, θυηπολοὶ, ὅθεν καλούμεν Χριστοτορίκλιον νέον, τὸν πρὶν λαχόντα κλήσεως χρυσωνόμου, ὡς τὸν θρόνον ἔχοντα Χριστοῦ κυρίου, Χριστοῦ δὲ μητρὸς, Χριστοκρηρικὸν τύπον, καὶ τοῦ σοφουργοῦ Μιχαὴλ τὴν εἰκόνα.

This was Michael the Drunkard, son of Theodora (Jacobs' Note). Compare vol ii. p 411. Was the Painting of Michael the Archangel, celebrated in two other Epigrams, erected on this occasion?—(Pp 12, 13)

* Ἀσκόπον ἀγγελίᾳρχον, ἀσώματον εἰδὲ μορφῇ

ἀ μετα τολμήεις κηρὸς ἀπεπλασάτο· οἶδε δὲ τεχνῇ χρώμασι πορθημεῖται τὴν φρενὸς ἱερότην

demand of triumphant zeal in the restoration of the persecuted Images. There was therefore a tacit compromise; nothing appeared but painting, mosaics, engraving on cups and chalices, embroidery on vestments. The renunciation of Sculpture grew into a rigid passionate aversion. The Greek at length learned to contemplate that kind of more definite and full representation of the Deity or the Saints with the aversion of a Jew or a Mohammedan.^m Yet some admiration for ancient Sculpture of heathen objects lingered behind in the Grecian mind. In his vehement and bitter lamentation over the destruction of all the beautiful works of bronze by the Crusaders in the Latin Conquest of Constantinople, Nicetas is not content with branding the avarice which cast all these wonderful statues into the melting-pot to turn them into money; he denounces the barbarians as dead to every sense of beauty,ⁿ who remorselessly destroyed the colossal Juno, the equestrian Bellerophon, the Hercules; as regardless of the proud reminiscences of old Rome, they melted the swine and the wolf which suckled Romulus and Remus, and the ass with its driver set up by Augustus after the battle of Actium; they feared not to seize the magic eagle of Apollonius of Tyana. Even the exquisite Helen, who set the world in arms, notwithstanding her unrivalled beauty and her fame, touched not, and did not soften those iron-hearted,

^m Nicephorus Critopulos, a late writer, says, *τούτων οὐκ εἰκονας ἡ ἐκκλησία ἐποίησε οὐ γλυπτὰς οὐδὲ λαξευτὰς ἀλλὰ γραπτὰς μόνον*, quoted in Suicer, who speaks justly of "Imagines sculptas et excisas, ipsiusque Dei representationes apud Græcos *εὐφραννὸν* ignotas." The exquisite small

carvings in ivory were permitted seemingly in all ages of Byzantine art.

ⁿ Nicetas Choniata de Signis, *ὁ τοῦ καλοῦ ἀνέρας τοῖ οὗτοι βάρβαροι*. Some called the equestrian Bellerophon Joshua the Son of Nun. This is remarkable,

those unlettered savages, who could not read, who had never heard of Homer.^o

The West might seem to assert its more bold and free image-worship by its unrestrained and prodigal display of religious sculpture; still it was mostly sculpture decorative, or forming an integral part of Architecture. It was not the ordinary occupation of Sculpture to furnish the beautiful single statue of marble or of bronze. Rome had no succession of Emperors, whose attribute and privilege it was to a late period in Constantinople to have their image set up for the homage of the people, and so to keep alive the art of carving marble or casting bronze. But gradually in the Romanesque, as in the later Gothic Architecture, the west front of the Churches might seem, as it were, the chosen place for sacred Images. Not merely did the Saviour and the Virgin appear as the Guardian Deities over the portal, gradually the Host of Heaven, Angels, Apostles, Martyrs, Evangelists, Saints spread over the whole façade. They stood on pedestals or in niches; reliefs more or less high found their panels in the walls; the heads of the portal arches were carved in rich designs; the semicircle more or less round or pointed, above the level line of the door, was crowded with sacred scenes, or figures. But in all these, as in other statues if such there were, within the Churches, Christian modesty required that human or divinised figures must be fully clad. Sculpture, whose essence is form, found the naked human figure almost under proscription. There remained nothing for the sculptor's

^o Of Helen he says—*ἀρ' ἐμείλιξε καὶ τέλεον ἀναλφαβητοῖς ἀναγνώσις τοὺς δισμειλίκτους, ἀρ' ἐμάλθαξε καὶ γνῶσις τῶν ἐπὶ σοὶ βαψφδθέντων τοὺς σιδηρόφρονας; . . . ἕλλωι ἐκείνων ἐπὶ πῶν.*—Edit. Bonn., p 863.
τὸ τοῦ παρὰ ἀγραμμάτοις βαρβάρους

art but the attitude, the countenance, and the more or less graceful fall of the drapery; all this too, in strict subordination to the architectural effect; with this he must be content, and not aspire to centre on himself and his work the admiring and long dwelling eye.^p The Sculptor, in general, instead of the votary and master of a high and independent art, became the workman of the architect; a step or two higher than the carver of the capital, or the moulding, the knosp or the finial.^q In some respects the progress of Gothic, though it multiplied images to infinity, was unfavourable; as the niches became loftier and narrower, the Saints rose to disproportionate stature, shrunk to meagre gracility, they became ghosts in long shrouds. Sometimes set on high upon pinnacles, or crowded in hosts as at Milan, they lost all distinctness, and were absolutely nothing more than architectural ornaments.

All, no doubt, even as regards sculptural excellence, is not equally rude, barbarous, or barren. So many artists could not be employed, even under conventional restrictions, on subjects so suggestive of high and solemn emotion, men themselves under deep devotional feelings, without communicating to the hard stone some of their own conceptions of majesty, awfulness, serenity, grace, beauty. The sagacious judgement among the crowds of figures in front of our Cathedrals may discern some of the nobler attributes of Sculpture, dignity, expression, skilful and flowing disposition of drapery, even while that judgement is not prompted and kindled by reverential

^p Even of the Crucifix Schnaase has justly said, "Gleichzeitig anderte sich auch die Tracht des Gekreuzigten; die lange Tunica, welche früher den Körper ganz verhüllte, ward schon in 12. Jahr. kurzer, im 13. und noch allgemeiner in 14. vertritt ein Schurz von die Hüfte ihre Stelle"—iv. p. 390.

^q It is to be observed that the Statues were only intended to be seen in front.

religiousness, as is often the case, to imagine that in the statue which is in the man's own mind. In the reliefs, if there be more often confusion, grotesqueness, there is not seldom vigour and distinctness, skilful grouping, an artistic representation of an impressive scene. The animals are almost invariably hard, conventional emblems not drawn from nature; but the human figure, if without anatomical precision, mostly unnecessary when so amply swathed in drapery, in its outline and proportions is at times nobly developed. Yet, on the whole, the indulgence usually claimed and readily conceded for the state of art at the period, is in itself the unanswerable testimony to its imperfection and barbarism. Christian Sculpture must produce, as it did afterwards produce, something greater, with John of Bologna and Michael Angelo, or it must be content to leave to heathen Greece the uncontested supremacy in this wonderful art. Sculpture, in truth, must learn from ancient art those elementary lessons which Christianity could not teach, which it dared not, or would not venture to teach; it must go back to Greece for that revelation of the inexhaustible beauties of the human form which had long been shrouded from the eyes of men. The anthropomorphism of the Greeks grew out of, and at the same time fully developed the physical perfection of the human body. That perfection was the model, the ideal of the Sculptor. The gods in stature, force, majesty, proportion, beauty, were but superhuman men. To the Christian there was still some disdain of the sensual perishable body; with monasticism, that disdain grew into contempt; it must be abased, macerated, subdued. The utmost beauty which it could be allowed was patience, meekness, gentleness, lowliness. To the fully developed athlete succeeded the emaciated saint. The

man of sorrows, the form "of the servant," still lingered in the Divine Redeemer; the Saint must be glorified in meekness; the Martyr must still bear the sign and expression of his humiliation. The whole age might seem determined to disguise and conceal, even if not to debase, the human form, the Sculptor's proper domain and study, in its free vigorous movement or stately tranquillity. The majestic Prelate was enveloped in his gorgeous and cumbrous habiliments, which dazzled with their splendour; the strong, tall, noble Knight was sheathed in steel; even the Monk or Friar was swathed in his coarse ungainly dress, and cowl. Even for its draperies reviving Sculpture must go back to the antique.

There was one branch, however, of the art—Monumental Sculpture—which assumed a peculiar character and importance under Christianity, and aspired to originality and creativeness. Even Monumental Sculpture, in the Middle Ages, was in some degree architectural. The tomb upon which, the canopy under which, lay the King, the Bishop, or the Knight, or the Lady, was as carefully and as elaborately wrought as the slumbering image. In the repose, in the expression of serene sleep, in the lingering majesty, gentleness, or holiness of countenance of these effigies there is often singular beauty.* Repose is that in which Sculpture delights; the repose, or the collapsing into rest, of a superhuman being, after vigorous exertion; nothing, therefore, could be more exquisitely suited to

* Among the noblest tombs in Italy are that of Benedict XI at Perugia, by John, son of Nicolo Pisano; of Gregory X., by Margaritone, at Arezzo; of John XXIII., at Florence, by Donatello. Our own Cathedrals have noble specimens of somewhat ruder work—the Edward III., Queen Philippa, and Richard II., in Westminster Abbey.

the art than the peace of the Christian sleeping after a weary life, sleeping in conscious immortality, sleeping to awake to a calm and joyful resurrection. Even the drapery, for Sculpture must here, above all, submit to conceal the form in drapery, is at rest. But Monumental Sculpture did not confine itself to the single recumbent figure. The first great Christian Sculptor, Nicolo Pisano, in the former part of the 14th century, showed his earliest skill and excellence in the reliefs round the tomb of St. Dominic at Bologna.* It is remarkable that the first great Christian Sculptor was a distinguished architect. Nicolo Pisano had manifestly studied at Rome and elsewhere the remains of ancient art; they guide and animate, but only guide and animate his bold and vigorous chisel. Christian in form and sentiment, some of his figures have all the grace and ease of Grecian Art. Nicolo Pisano stood, indeed, alone almost as much in advance of his successors, as of those who had gone before.† Nor did Nicolo Pisano confine himself to Monumental Sculpture. The spacious pulpits began to offer panels which might be well filled up with awful admonitory reliefs. In those of Pisa and Sienna the master, in others his disciples and scholars, displayed their vigour and power. There was one scene which permitted them to reveal the naked form—the Last Judgement. Men, women, rose unclad from their

* See on Nicolo Pisano, Cicognara, *Storia de Scultura*, v. 111, with the illustrative Prints. In Count Cicognara's engravings the transition from the earliest masters to Nicolo Pisano, is to be transported to another age, to overleap centuries.

† Count Cicognara writes thus: all that I have seen, and all the Count's

illustrations, confirm his judgement:—
"Tutto ciò che lo aveva proceduto era molto al di sotto de lui, e per elevarsi ad un tratto fu forza d'un genio straordinario," p. 223. "E le opere degli scolari di Niccolo ci sembreranno talvolta della mano de suoi predecessori," p. 234. Guilds of sculpture now arose at Sienna and elsewhere.

tombs. And it is singular to remark how Nicolo Pisano seized all that was truly noble and sculptural. The human form appears in infinite variety of bold yet natural attitude, without the grotesque distortions, without the wild extravagances, the writhing, the shrinking from the twisting serpents, the torturing fiends, the monsters preying upon the vitals. Nicolo wrought before Dante, and maintained the sobriety of his art. Later Sculpture and Painting must aspire to represent all that Poetry had represented, and but imperfectly represented in words: it must illustrate Dante.

But in the first half of the fifteenth century, during the Popedom of Eugenius and Nicolas V., Sculpture broke loose from its architectural servitude, and with Donatello, and with Brunelleschi (if Brunelleschi had not turned aside and devoted himself exclusively to architectural art), even with Ghiberti, asserted its dignity and independence as a creative art.* The Evangelist or the Saint began to stand alone trusting to his own majesty, not depending on his position as part of an harmonious architectural design. The St. Mark and the St. George of Donatello are noble statues, fit to take their place in the public squares of Florence. In his fine David, after the death of Goliath, above all in his Judith and Holofernes, Donatello took a bolder flight. In that masterly work (writes Vasari) the simplicity of the dress and countenance of Judith manifest her lofty spirit and the aid of God; as in Holofernes wine, sleep,

* Donatello born 1383, died 1466; between Donatello and Brunelleschi, in Brunelleschi 1398; Ghiberti 1378, which Donatello owned that while died 1455. I ought perhaps to have himself made an univalled Contadino, added Jacobo della Quercia, who worked Brunelleschi made a Christ. See Vasari rather earlier at Bologna and Sienna. on the works of Donatello. Read in Vasari the curious contest be-

and death are expressed in his limbs; which, having lost their animating spirit, are cold and failing. Donatello succeeded so well in portrait statuary, that to his favourite female statue he said—Speak! speak! His fame at Padua was unrivalled. Of him it was nobly said, either Donatello was a prophetic anticipation of Buonarrotti, or Donatello lived again in Buonarrotti.

Ghiberti's great work was the gates of the Baptistery at Florence, deserving, in Michael Angelo's praise, to be called the Gates of Heaven; and it was from their copiousness, felicity, and unrivalled sculptural designs, that these gates demanded and obtained their fame.

CHAPTER X.

Christian Painting.

PAINTING, which, with architecture and music, attained its perfect and consummate excellence under the influence of Latin Christianity, had yet to await the century which followed the pontificate of Nicolas V. before it culminated, through Francia and Perugino, in Michael Angelo, Leonardo, Raffaello, Correggio, and Titian. It received only its first impulse from mediæval Christianity; its perfection was simultaneous with the revival of classical letters and ancient art. Religion had in a great degree to contest the homage, even of its greatest masters, with a dangerous rival. Some few only of its noblest professors were at that time entirely faithful to Christian art. But all these, as well as the second Teutonic school, Albert Durer and his followers, are beyond our bounds.*

Of the great Epochs of Painting, therefore, two only, preparatory to the Perfect Age, belong to our present history: I. That which is called (I cannot but think too

* It were unwise and presumptuous (since our survey here also must be brief and rapid) to enter into the artistic and antiquarian questions which have been agitated and discussed with so much knowledge and industry by modern writers, especially (though I would not pass over Lanzi, still less the new Annotated Edition of Vasari)

by the Baron Rumohr (*Italienische Forschungen*), my friend M. Rio (*Art Chrétien*), by Kugler and his accomplished Translators, and by Lord Lindsay (*Christian Art*). In my summary I shall endeavour to indicate the sources from which it can be amplified, justified, or filled up.

exclusively) the Byzantine period; II. That initiatory branch of Italian art which I will venture to name, from the subjects it chose, the buildings which it chiefly adorned, and the profession of many of the best masters who practised it, the Cloistral epoch. The second period reached its height in Frà Angelico da Fiesole.^b

It is impossible to doubt that Painting, along with the conservation of some of its technical processes, and with some traditionary forms, and the conventional representation of certain scenes in the Scriptural History or in Legends, preserved certain likenesses, as they were thought to be, of the Saviour and his Apostles and Martyrs, designated by fixed and determinate lineaments, as well as by their symbolical attributes. The paintings in the Catacombs at Rome show such forms and countenances in almost unbroken descent till nearly two centuries after the conversion of Constantine.^c The history of Iconoclasm has recorded how such pictures were in the East religiously defended, religiously destroyed, religiously restored; how the West, in defiance, as it were, and contempt of the impious persecutor, seemed to take a new impulse, and the Popes of the Iconoclastic

^b Born 1387—became a Dominican 1407.

^c Much has been done during the last few years in the Catacombs. The great French Publication, by M. Louis Perret, is beautiful; if it be as true as beautiful, by some inexplicable means, some of the paintings have become infinitely more distinct and brilliant, since I saw them some thirty years ago. It is unfortunate that the passion for early art, and polemic passion, are so busy in discovering what they are determined to find, that sober, histori-

cal, and artistic criticism is fairly bewildered. There are two important questions yet to be settled. When did the Catacombs cease to be places of burial? (what is the date of the later cemeteries of Rome?). When did the Catacomb Chapels cease to be places not of public worship, but of fervent private devotion? To the end of that period, whenever it was, they would continue to be embellished by art, and therefore the difficulty of affixing dates to works of art is increased.

age lavished large sums on decorations of their churches by paintings, if not by sculpture. No doubt, also, many monk-artists fled from the sacrilegious East to practise their holy art in the safe and quiet West. Even a century or more before this, it is manifest that Justinian's conquest of Italy, as it brought the Byzantine form of architecture, so it brought the Byzantine skill, the modes and usages of the subsidiary art. The Byzantine painting of that age lives in the mosaics (the more durable process of that, in all its other forms, too perishable art) on the walls of the Church of San Vitale, and in S. Apollinaris in Ravenna, and in other Italian cities under Greek influence. These mosaics maintain the indefeasible character^d of Greek Christianity. The vast, majestic image of the Saviour broods indeed over the place of honour, above the high altar; but on the chancel-walls, within the Sanctuary, are on one side the Emperor, Theodora on the other, not Saints or Martyrs, not Bishops or Popes. It cannot be argued, from the survival of these more lasting works, that mosaic predominated over other modes of painting, either in Constantinople or in the Byzantinised parts of the West. But as it was more congenial to the times, being a work more technical and mechanical, so no doubt it tended to the hard, stiff, conventional forms which in general characterise Byzantine art, as well as to their perpetuity. The traditions of painting lived on. The descriptions of the paintings on the walls of the Romans^e by the poets

^d On the Mosaics of Leo III., Anastasius in vit. compare Schnaase, *Bildende Kunst*, iii. p. 505

^e In the Castle Villa of Pontius Leontius on the Garonne, in the verses of Sidonius Apollinarius, *Carmin.* xxi.,

were painted on one part scenes from the Mithridatic war waged by Lucullus; on the other the opening Chapters of the Old Testament "*Reconstitutorum primordia Judæorum.*" Sidonius seems to have been surprised at the splendour,

of the fourth or fifth centuries bear striking resemblance to those of the poets of Charlemagne and Louis the Pious, of the works which adorned Aix-la-Chapelle and the Palace of Ingelheim. How far, during all this period, it was old Roman art, or Roman art modified by Byzantine influences, may seem a question unimportant to general history, and probably incapable of a full solution. We must confine ourselves to that which is specially and exclusively Christian art.

Of all Christian painting during this long period, from the extinction of Paganism to the rise of Italian art (its first dawn at the beginning of the twelfth century, brightening gradually to the time of Nicolas V.), the one characteristic is that its object was worship, not art. It was a mute preaching, which addressed not the refined and intelligent, but the vulgar of all ranks.^f Its utmost aim was to awaken religious emotion, to suggest religious thought. It was therefore—more, no doubt, in the East than in the West—rigidly traditional, conventional, hierarchical. Each form had its special type, from which it was dangerous, at length forbidden, to depart. Each scene, with its grouping and arrangement, was consecrated by long reverence; the artist worked in the trammels of usage; he had faithfully to transmit to others that which he had received, and no more. Invention was proscribed; novelty might

and duration of the colours

"Perpetuum pictura in cat, nec tempore
longo

Depreciata suas turpant pigmenta figuras"
—C 202.

Fortunatus mentions wood-carving as
invaluing painting.

"Quos pictura solet, ligna dedere jocos"

See Erymoudus Nigellus, for the paint-
ings at Ingelheim.

^f See the Greek Epigram on the
painting of Michael the Archangel.

Ὅς θεῶν μορφῶσαι τὸν ἀσώματον ἀλλὰ
καὶ τῶν
ἐς τοῦτον ἀνάγει μνήστιν ἐπουρανίων,
Jacobs, p 14.

This whole series of Epigrams was in-
scribed, no doubt, either under paint-
ings, or under illuminations in MSS.

incur the suspicion almost of heresy—at all events it would be an unintelligible language. Symbolism without a key; it would either jar on sacred associations, or perplex, or offend.⁵

From the earliest period there had been two traditional conceptions of that which was the central figure of Christian art, the Lord himself. One represented the Saviour as a beautiful youth, beardless—a purely ideal image, typical perhaps of the rejuvenescence of mankind in Christ.^h Such was the prevailing, if not the exclusive conception of the Redeemer in the West. In the East, the Christ is of mature age, of tall stature, meeting eyebrows, beautiful eyes, fine-formed nose, curling hair, figure slightly bowed, of delicate complexion, dark beard (it is sometimes called wine-coloured beard), his face, like his mother's, of the colour of wheat, long fingers, sonorous voice, and sweet eloquence (how was this painted?),ⁱ most gentle, quiet, long-suffering, patient, with all kindred graces, blending the manhood with the attributes of God. In the fabulous letter ascribed to

⁵ Kugler has the quotation from the Acts of the Council of Nice, which show that the Byzantine painters worked according to a law *θέσμος*. But M. Didron's work, *Manuel d'Iconographie Chrétienne*, at once proved the existence, and in fact published this law, according to which, in his vivid words—"L'artiste Grec est asservi aux traditions comme l'animal à son instinct, il fait une figure comme l'hirondelle son nid ou l'abeille sa ruche," p. iv. The Greek Painter's Guide, which fills the greater part of M. Didron's book, gives all the rules of technical procedure and design.

^h Didron, *Hist. de Dieu*, and a trans-

lation published by Bohn, p. 249. But compare the two heads from the Catacombs, engraved in the Translation of Kugler. These, if both indeed represent the Redeemer, and are of the period supposed, approximate more nearly to the Eastern type.

ⁱ Didron, p. 248, from John of Damascus. M. Didron has fully investigated the subject, but with an utter and total want of historical criticism. He accepts this controversial tract of John of Damascus (he does not seem to read Greek) as an authority for all the old Legends of Abgarus of Edessa, and the likenesses of Christ painted or carved by order of Constantine.

Lentulus, descriptive of the person of the Redeemer, this conception is amplified into still higher beauty.^{*} The truth seems to be that this youthful Western type was absolutely and confessedly ideal; it was symbolic of the calm, gentle, young, world-renewing religion. In one place the Christ seems standing on the mystic mountain from whence issue the four rivers of Paradise, the Gospels of everlasting life.^m The tradition of the actual likeness was Eastern (it was unknown to Augustine), and this tradition in all its forms, at the second Council of Nicæa, and in the writings of John of Damascus, became historical fact. Though at that time there was not much respect for Scripture or probability, yet the youthful, almost boyish type of the Western Church, if it still survived, was so directly at issue with the recorded age of Jesus, that even in the West the description in John of Damascus, embellished into the bolder fiction of Lentulus, the offspring, and not the parent of the controversy, found general acceptance in the West as in the East.ⁿ

^{*} Compare Hist. of Christianity, iii. p. 390, for the translation of Lentulus. I am astounded at finding in a book like Kugler's (the English translation especially having undergone such supervision) the assertion that this letter of Lentulus may "possibly be assigned to the third century," p. 12. What evidence is there of its existence before the ninth or even the eleventh century? It is a strange argument, the only one that I can find, that the description resembles some of the earliest so-called portraits of the Saviour, even one in the Catacombs. It is clear that it was unknown to the early Fathers, especially to St. Augustine. If known, it must have been adduced at the Council

of Nicæa, and by John of Damascus. But even the fable had not been heard of at that time. I have not the least doubt that it was a fiction growing out of the controversy.

^m Didron, p. 251.

ⁿ Hence too the Veronica, the vera *eikôn*, a singular blending of Greek and Latin fiction and language. William Grimm, however, in his "Die Sage von Ursprung der Christus Bilder," treats this as a fancy of Mabillon and Papebroch. He derives it from the traditional name, Βερονικη, of the woman whose issue of blood was stanchd, who *traditionally* also was the S. Veronica. — Berlin. Transact., 1843.

But the triumph of Iconoclasm had been a monastic triumph—a triumph for which the monks had suffered and admired each other's martyr sufferings. Gradually misery and pain became the noblest, dearest images; the joyous and elevating, if still lowly, emotions of the older faith, gave place altogether to gloom, to dreary depression. Among one class of painters, the monks of St. Basil, there was a reaction to absolute black-
Monks of St. Basil. Black School.
 ness and ugliness. The Saviour became a dismal, macerated, self-tortured monk. Light vanished from his brow; gentleness from his features; calm, serene majesty from his attitude.

Another change, about the tenth century, came over the image of the Lord. It was no longer the
Change in the tenth century.
 mild Redeemer, but the terrible Judge, which painting strove to represent. As the prayers, the hymns, gradually declined from the calm, if not jubilant tone of the earliest Church, the song of deliverance from hopeless unawakening death, the triumph in the assurance of eternal life,—so the youthful symbol of the new religion, the form which the Godhead, by its in-dwelling, beautified and glorified, the still meek, if commanding look of the Redeemer, altogether disappeared, or ceased to be the most ordinary and dominant character: he became the King of tremendous majesty, before whom stood shuddering, guilty, and resuscitated mankind.^o The Cross, too, by degrees, became the Crucifix.^p The image of the Lord on the Cross was at first
The Crucifix
 meek, though suffering; pain was represented, but pain overcome by patience; it was still a clothed

* See the observations of Schnaase above, p. 599, note.

^p Schnaase says that the first Byzantine representation of the Crucifixion is in a Codex of the time of Basil the Macedonian (867 886), iii p. 216.

fixion is in a Codex of the time of Basil the Macedonian (867 886), iii

p. 216.

form, with long drapery. By degrees it was stripped to ghastly nakedness; agony became the prevailing, absorbing tone. The intensity of the suffering strove at least to subdue the sublime resignation of the sufferer; the object of the artist was to wring the spectator's heart with fear and anguish, rather than to chasten with quiet sorrow or elevate with faith and hope; to aggravate the sin of man, rather than display the mercy of God. Painting vied with the rude sculpture which arose in many quarters (sculpture more often in wood than in stone), and by the red streaming blood, and the more vivid expression of pain in the convulsed limbs, deepened the effect; till, at last, that most hideous and repulsive object, the painted Crucifix, was offered to the groaning worship of mankind.¹

But this was only one usage, though the dominant one—one school of Byzantine art. Painting, both at Constantinople and in Italy, was more true to its own dignity, and to Christianity. It still strove to maintain nobler conceptions of the God-Man, and to embody the Divinity glorifying the flesh in which it dwelt. In this respect, no doubt, the more durable form of the art would be highly conservative; it prevented deeper degeneration. If other painting might dare to abrogate the

¹ The curious and just observations of M. Didron should be borne in mind in the History of Christian Painting "Nous dirons à cette occasion, qu'il n'y aurait rien de plus intéressant qu'à signaler dans l'ordre chronologique les sujets de la Bible, du Martyrologe, et de la Légende, que les différentes époques ont surtout affectionnés. Dans les catacombes il n'y a pas une scène de martyre, mais une foule de sujets relatifs à la resurrection. Les Martyrs

et les jugements derniers, avec les représentations des supplices de l'enfer, abondent pendant le moyen âge. A partir de la renaissance à nos jours c'est la douceur, et, disons le mot, la sentimentalité, qui dominent, alors on adopta la bénédiction des petits enfants, et les dévotions qui ont le cœur pour l'objet. Il faut chercher la raison de tous ces faits."—Didron, *Manuel d'Iconographie*, p. 182, note. The reason is clear enough.

tradition or the law, Mosaic would be more unable, or more unwilling, to venture upon dangerous originality. It would be a perpetual protest against the encroachments of ugliness and deformity: its attribute, its excellence being brilliancy, strongly contrasted diversity and harmony of rich colouring, it would not consent to darken itself to a dismal monotony. Yet Mosaic can hardly become high art; it is too artificial, too mechanical. It may have, if wrought from good models, an imposing effect; but the finely-evanescent outline, the true magic of colouring, the depth, the light and shade, the half-tints, the blending and melting into each other of hues in their finest gradations, are beyond its powers. The interlaying of small pieces cannot altogether avoid a broken, stippled, spotty effect: it cannot be alive. As it is strong and hard, we can tread it under foot on a pavement, and it is still bright as ever: but in the church, the hall, or the chamber, it is an enamelled wall—but it is a wall; * splendid decoration, but aspiring to none of the loftier excellences of art. But throughout this period faithful conservation was in truth the most valuable service. Mosaic fell in with the tendency to conventionalism, and aided in strengthening conventionalism into irresistible law.*

Thus Byzantine art, and Roman art in the West, so

* Kugler (p. 20) is almost inclined to suspect that historic painting on walls in Mosaic arose under Christian influences in the fourth century. It was before on pavements

* The account of the earlier Mosaics, and the description of those at Rome and at Ravenna, in Kugler's Handbook, is full and complete. Kugler, it is to be observed, ascribed those in San Vitale, and other works of Justinian and

his age in the West, to Roman, not Byzantine Art. This, perhaps, can hardly be determined. The later, at S. Apollinare in Ravenna, at S. Prassede, and other Churches in Rome, are Byzantine in character; on those of Venice Kugler is fuller. The Art was lost in Italy at the close of the ninth century, to revive again more free and Italian in the eleventh and twelfth.

Byzantine art, went on with its constant supply of images, relieved by a blazing golden ground, and with the most glowing colours, but in general stiff, rigid, shapeless, expressionless. Worship still more passionate multiplied its objects; and those objects it was content to receive according to the established pattern. The more rich and gaudy, the more welcome the offering to the Saint or to the Deity, the more devout the veneration of the worshipper. This character—splendid colouring, the projection of the beautiful but too regular face, or the hard, but not entirely unpliant form, by the rich background—prevails in all the subordinate works of art in East and West—enamels, miniatures, illuminations in manuscripts. In these, not so much images for popular worship, as the slow work of artists dwelling with unbounded delight on their own creations, seem gradually to dawn glimpses of more refined beauty, faces, forms, more instinct with life: even the boundless luxuriance of ornament, flowers, foliage, animals, fantastic forms, would nurse the sense of beauty, and familiarise the hand with more flowing lines, and the mind with a stronger feeling for the graceful for the sake of its grace. It was altogether impossible that, during so many ages, Byzantine art, or the same kind of art in the West, where it was bound by less rigid tradition, and where the guild of painters did not pass down in such regular succession, should not struggle for freedom.* The religious emotions which

* I must decline the controversy how far Western Art was Byzantine. It may be possible for the fine sagacity of modern judgment to discriminate between the influences of Byzantine and old Roman Art, as regards the

forms and designs of Painting. Yet considering that the Byzantine Artists of Justinian, and the Exarchs of Ravenna, to a far greater extent those who, flying from the Iconoclastic persecution, brought with them the secrets

the painter strove to excite in others would kindle in himself, and years after something more than the cold immemorial language. By degrees the hard, flat lineaments of the countenance would begin to quicken themselves; its long ungraceful outline would be rounded into fulness and less rigid expression; the tall, straight, meagre form would swell out into something like movement, the stiff, fettered extremities separate into the attitude of life; the drapery would become less like the folds which swathe a mummy; the mummy would begin to stir with life. It was impossible but that the Saviour should relax his harsh, stern lineaments; that the child should not become more child-like; the Virgin-Mother waken into maternal tenderness." This effort after emancipation would first take place in those smaller

and rules of their art, were received and domiciliated in the Western Monasteries, and that in those Monasteries were chiefly preserved the traditions of the older Italian Art; that at no time was the commercial or political connexion of Constantinople and the West quite broken off, and under the Othos the two Courts were cemented by marriage, that all the examples of the period are to be sought in the rigid Mosaic, in miniatures, ivories, illuminations—there must have been so much intermingling of the two streams, that such discrimination must at least be conjectural.—Compare Rio, on what he calls Romano-Christian, independent of Byzantine Art, pp. 32 *et seqq.* Rumohr, *Italienische Forschungen*, and Kugler. Lord Lindsay is a strong Byzantine; and see in Kugler, p. 77; but Kugler will hardly allow Byzantine Art credit for the original conception or execution of the better designs.

^a Durandus, in his *Rationale*, l. c. 3, would confine the representation of the Saviour in Churches to three attitudes, either on his throne of glory, on the cross of shame, or in the lap of his Mother. He adds another, as teacher of the world, with the Book in his hand—See Schnaase, iv. 387, for the various postures (ii. p. 136) of the Child in his Mother's arms. Schnaase, *Geschichte der Bildende Kunst*, says that about the middle of the fifth century the paintings of the Virgin Mary became more common (one has been discovered, which is asserted to be of an earlier period, but we have only the authority of enthusiastic admiration and polemic zeal for its age) in the Catacombs. The great Mosaic in S. Apollinare Nuovo is of the first quarter of the sixth century. Her image, as has been said, floated over the fleet of the Emperor Heraclius I.

works, the miniatures, the illuminations of manuscripts.* On these the artist could not but work, as has been said, more at his ease; on the whole, in them he would address less numerous perhaps, but more intelligent spectators; he would be less in dread of disturbing popular superstition: and so Taste, the parent and the child of art, would struggle into being. Thus imperceptibly, thus in various quarters, these better qualities cease to be the secret indulgences, the life-long labours of the emblazoner of manuscripts, the illuminator of missals. In the higher branches of the art, the names of artists gradually begin to transpire, to obtain respect and fame; the sure sign that art is beginning, that mere technical traditionary working at images for popular worship is drawing to its close. Already the names of Guido of Sienna, Giotto of Pisa, and of Cimabue, resound through Christendom. Poetry hail's the birth and the youth of her sister art.

Such, according to the best authorities, appears to have been the state of painting from the iconoclastic controversy throughout the darker ages. Faintly and hesitatingly at the commencement of the twelfth century,[†] more boldly and vigorously towards its close, and

* The exquisite grace of the ivory carvings from Constantinople, which show so high and pure a conception for art, as contrasted with the harsh glaring paintings, is perfectly compatible with these views. The ivories were the works of more refined artists for a more refined class. The paintings were the idols of the vulgar—a hard, cruel, sensual vulgar; the ivories, as it were, talismans of the hardly less superstitious, but more opulent, and polished; of those who kept up, some the love of letters, some more cultivated tastes. Even the illuminations were the quiet works of the gentler and better and more civilised Monks: their love and their study of the Holy Books was the testimony and the means of their superior refinement.

† “Mir selbst aber ist es während vieljähriger Nachforschung durchaus nicht gelungen, irgend ein Beispiel des Wiederaufstrebens und Fortschreitens der italienischen Kunstübung auszufinden, dessen Alter den Anbeginn des

during the thirteenth and half the fourteenth, Italian painting rose by degrees, threw off with Giotto the last trammels of Byzantinism which had still clung around Cimabue; and at least strove after that exquisite harmony of nature and of art, which had still great progress to make before it reached its consummation. Turn from the vast, no doubt majestic Redeemer of Cimabue, which broods, with its attendant figures of the Virgin and St. John, over the high altar at Pisa, to the free creations of Giotto at Florence or Padua. Giotto was the great deliverer. Invention is no sooner free than it expatiates in unbounded variety. Nothing more moves our wonder than the indefatigable activity, the unexhausted fertility of Giotto: he is adorning Italy from the Alps to the Bay of Naples; even crossing the Alps to Avignon. His works either exist or have existed at Avignon, Milan, Verona, Padua, Ferrara, Urbino, Ravenna, Rimini, Lucca, Florence, Assisi, Rome, Gaeta, Naples.* Bishops, religious orders, republics, princes and potentates, kings, popes, demand his services, and do him honour. He raises at once the most beautiful tower in architecture—that of Florence—and paints the Chapel of the Arena at Padua, and the Church at Assisi. Giotto was no monk, but, in its better sense, a man of the world. Profoundly religious in expression, in character, in aim; yet religious not merely as embodying all the imagery of the mediæval faith, but as prophetic, at least, if not presentient of a wider Catholicism.* Be-

Giotto,
born 1276,
died 1336.

zwölften Jahrhunderts übersteige."—
Rumohr, *Italienische Forschungen*, i. p.
250.

For the works of the twelfth century, Kugler, p. 94 *et seqq.* Nevertheless full eighty years elapsed before this development made any further

progress, p. 98. Sculpture in relief was earlier than Painting.

* Rio says, perhaps too strongly, that *all* his works at Avignon, Milan, Verona, Ferrara, Modena, Ravenna, Lucca, Gaeta, have perished, p. 65.

* There is great truth and beauty.

sides the Scriptural subjects, in which he did not entirely depart from the Byzantine or earlier arrangement, and all the more famous Legends, he opened a new world of real and of allegorical beings. The poetry of St. Francis had impersonated everything; not merely, therefore, did the life of St. Francis offer new and picturesque subjects, but the impersonations, Chastity, Obedience, Poverty, as in the hymns of St. Francis they had taken being, assumed form from Giotto. Religious led to civil allegory. Giotto painted the commonwealth of Florence. Allegory in itself is far too unobjective for art: it needs perpetual interpretation, which art cannot give; but it was a sign of the new world opening, or rather boldly thrown open, to painting by Giotto. The whole Scripture, the whole of Legend (not the old permitted forms and scenes alone), the life of the Virgin, of the Saints, of the founders of Orders, even the invisible worlds which Dante had revealed in poetry, now expanded in art. Dante, perhaps, must await Orcagna, not indeed actually to embody, but to illustrate his transmundane worlds. Italy herself hailed, with all her more powerful voices—her poets, novelists, historians—the new epoch of art in Giotto. Dante declares that he has dethroned Cimabue. “The vulgar,” writes Petrarch, “cannot understand the surpassing beauty of Giotto’s Virgin, before which the masters stand in astonishment.” “Giotto,” says Boccaccio, “imitates nature to perfect

in the character of Giotto as drawn by Lord Lindsay (ii. p. 268). The three first paragraphs appear to me most striking and just. Lord Lindsay divides his life into four periods. I. His youth in Florence and Rome. II. About A.D. 1306 in Lombardy, the Arena at Padua. III. Assisi. IV. Longer residence in Florence, North of Italy, Avignon, Naples, p. 165.—See also Mr. Ruskin’s Memoir. For Giotto’s remarkable Poem against voluntary poverty, see Rumohr, i. c. 9.

illusion;" Villani describes him as transcending all former artists in the truth of nature.^b

During the latter half of the thirteenth, and throughout the fourteenth century, the whole of Italy, the churches, the monasteries, the cloisters, many of the civil buildings, were covered with paintings aspiring after, and approximating to the highest art. Sienna, then in the height of her glory and prosperity, took the lead; Pisa beheld her Campo Santo peopled with the wonderful creations of Orcagna. Painting aspired to her Inferno, Purgatorio, Paradiso: Painting will strive to have her Dante.

This outburst was simultaneous with, it might seem to originate in, the wide dissemination, the ubiquitous activity, and the strong religious passion felt, propagated, kept alive in its utmost intensity ^{Mendicant Orders.} by the Mendicant Orders. Strange it might appear that the Arts, the highest luxuries, if we may so speak, of religion, should be fostered, cultivated, cherished, distributed throughout Italy, and even beyond the Alps, by those who professed to reduce Christianity to more than its primitive simplicity, its nakedness of all adornment, its poverty; whose mission it was to consort with the most rude and vulgar; beggars who aspired to rank below the coarsest mendicancy; according to whose rule there could be no property, hardly a fixed residence. Strange! that these should become the most munificent patrons of art, the most consummate artists; that their cloistered palaces should be the most sumptuous in architecture, and the most richly decorated by sculpture

^b "Credette Cimabue nella pittura
Tener lo campo, ed or' ha Giotto il grido"
Purg. xi. 94

cujus pulchritudinem ignorantes nec intelligunt, magistri autem artis stupent."—Quoted by Vasari. Decamerion, Giorn. vi. Nov. 5. Villani, 11, 12.

and painting; at once the workshops and the abodes of those who executed most admirably, and might seem to adore with the most intense devotion, these splendours and extravagances of religious wealth. Assisi—the birthplace of St. Francis, the poor, self-denying wanderer over the face of the earth, who hardly owned the cord which girt him, who possessed not a breviary of his own, who worshipped in the barren mountain, at best in the rock-hewn cell, whose companions were the lepers, the outcasts of human society—Assisi becomes the capital, the young, gorgeous capital of Christian Art. Perhaps in no single city of that period was such lavish expenditure made in all which was purely decorative. The church, finished by a German architect but five years after the death of St. Francis, put to shame in its architecture, as somewhat later in the paintings of Cimabue, Simon Memmi, Giotto, probably the noblest edifices in Rome, those in the Lombard Republics, in Pisa, Sienna, Florence, and as yet those of the capitals and cathedral cities of Transalpine Christendom. The Dominicans were not far behind in their steady cultivation, and their profuse encouragement of art.^c

Yet this fact is easy of explanation, if it has not already found its explanation in our history. There is always a vast mass of dormant religiousness in the world; it wants only to be seized, stimulated, directed, appropriated. These Orders swept into their ranks and within their walls all who yearned for more intense religion. Devout men threw themselves into the movement, which promised most boldly and succeeded most fully in satisfying the cravings of the heart. There

^c Simon Memmi of Sienna painted the legend of St. Dominic in the Chapel of the Spaniards in Santa Maria Novella at Florence.—Vasari and Rio, p. 55.

would be many whose vocation was not that of the active preacher, or the restless missionary, or the argute schoolman. There were the calm, the gentle, the contemplative. Men who had the irresistible calling to be artists became Franciscans or Dominicans, not because mendicancy was favourable to art, but because it awoke, and cherished, and strengthened those emotions which were to express themselves in art. Religion drove them into the cloister; the cloister and the church offered them its walls; they drew from all quarters the traditions, the technicalities of art. Being rich enough (the communities, not the individuals) to reward the best teachers or the more celebrated artists, they soon became masters of the skill, the manipulation, the rules of design, the practice of colouring. How could the wealth, so lavishly poured at their feet, be better employed than in the reward of the stranger-artist, who not only adorned their walls with the most perfect models, but whose study in the church or in the cloister was a school of instruction to the Monks themselves who aspired to be their pupils or their rivals?

The Monkish painters were masters of that invaluable treasure, time, to work their study up to perfection; there was nothing that urged to careless haste. Without labour they had their scanty but sufficient sustenance; they had no further wants. Art alternated with salutary rest, or with the stimulant of art, the religious service. Neither of these permitted the other to languish into dull apathy, or to rest in inexpressive forms or hues. No cares, no anxieties, probably not even the jealousies of art, intruded on these secluded Monks; theirs was the more blameless rivalry of piety, not of success. With some, perhaps, there was a latent unconscious pride, not so much in themselves as in the fame and

influence which accrued to the Order, or to the convent, which their works crowded more and more with wondering worshippers. But in most it was to disburthen, as it were, their own hearts, to express in form and colour their own irrepressible feelings. They would have worked as passionately and laboriously if the picture had been enshrined, unvisited, in their narrow cell. They worshipped their own works, not because they were their own, but because they spoke the language of their souls. They worshipped while they worked, worked that they might worship; and works so conceived and so executed (directly the fetters of conventionalism were burst and cast aside, and the technical skill acquired) could not fail to inspire the adoration of all kindred and congenial minds. Their pictures, in truth, were their religious offerings, made in single-minded zeal, with untiring toil, with patience never wearied or satisfied. If these offerings had their meed of fame, if they raised the glory or enlarged the influence and so the wealth of the Order, the simple artists were probably the last who would detect within themselves that less generous and less disinterested motive.

If the Dominicans were not inferior to the Franciscans in the generous encouragement of the art of painting, in its cultivation among their own brethren they attained higher fame. If Assisi took the lead, and almost all the best masters kindled its walls to life, the Dominican convent in Florence might boast the works of their own

brother Frà Angelico. To judge from extant paintings, Angelico was the unsurpassed, if not unrivalled, model of what I presume to call the Florentine school of painting. The perfect example of his inspiration as of his art was Frà Giovanni Angelico da Fiesole. Frà Angelico became a monk that he

might worship without disturbance, and paint without reward. He left all human passions behind him; his one passion was serene devotion, not without tenderness, but the tenderness of a saint rather than of a man. Before he began to paint, he knelt in prayer; as he painted the sufferings of the Redeemer, he would break off in tears. No doubt, when he attained that expression of calm, unearthly holiness which distinguishes his Angels or Saints, he stood partaking in their mystic ecstasy. He had nothing of the moroseness, the self-torture of the monk; he does not seem, like later monastic painters in Italy and Spain, to have delighted in the agony of the martyrdom; it is the glorified, not the suffering, Saint which is his ideal. Of the world, it was human nature alone from which he had wrenched away his sympathies. He delights in brilliant colours; the brightest green or the gayest hues in his trees and flowers; the richest reds and blues in his draperies, with a profusion of gold. Frà Angelico is the Mystic of painting, the contemplative Mystic, living in another world, having transmuted all that he remembers of this world into a purer, holier being. But that which was his excellence was likewise his defect. It was spiritualism, exquisite and exalting spiritualism, but it was too spiritual. Painting, which represents humanity, even in its highest, holiest form, must still be human. With the passions, the sympathies and affections of Giovanni's mind had almost died away. His child is not a child, he is a cherub. The Virgin and the Mother are not blended in perfect harmony and proportion; the colder Virgin prevails; adoration has extinguished motherly love. Above all, the Redeemer fails in all Angelico's pictures. Instead of the orthodox perfect God and perfect Man, by a singular heresy the humanity

is so effaced that, as the pure Divinity is unimaginable, and, unincarnate, cannot be represented, both the form and the countenance are stiffened to a cold, unmeaning abstraction. It is neither the human nature with the infused majesty and mercy of the Godhead; nor the Godhead subdued into the gentleness and patience of humanity. The God-Man is neither God nor Man. Even in the celestial or beatified beings, angels or saints, exquisite, unrivalled as is their grace and beauty, the grace is not that of beings accustomed to the free use of their limbs; the beauty is not that of our atmosphere. Not merely do they want the breath of life, the motion of life, the warmth of life, they want the truth of life, and without truth there is no consummate art. They have never really lived, never assumed the functions nor dwelt within the precincts of life. Painting having acquired in the cloister all this unworldliness, this profound devotion, this refined spirituality, must emerge again into the world to blend and balance both, first in Francia and Perugino, up to the perfect Leonardo and Raffaele. Even the cloister in Frà Bartolomeo must take a wider flight; it must paint man, it must humanise itself that it may represent man and demand the genuine admiration of man. It is without the walls of the cloister that painting finds its unrivalled votaries, achieves its most imperishable triumphs.

Transalpine Painting is no less the faithful conservator of the ancient traditions. In the German missals and books of devotion there is, throughout the earlier period, the faithful maintenance of the older forms, rich grounds, splendid colours. The walls of the older churches reveal paintings in which there is at least aspiration after higher things, some variety of design, some incipient grace and nobleness of form.

Transalpine,
German and
Flemish art

The great hierarchical cities on the Rhine seem to take the lead. William of Cologne and Master Stephen seem as if they would raise up rivals in Teutonic to Italian art. Above all, at the close of this period, about contemporary with Angelico da Fiesole, the Flemish Van Eycks, if not by the invention, by the perfection of oil-painting, gave an impulse of which it is difficult to calculate the importance. Those painters of the rich commercial cities of the Low Countries might seem as deeply devout in their conceptions as the cloistral school of Italy, yet more human as living among men, nobler in their grouping, nobler in their dresses and draperies; and already in their backgrounds anticipating that truth and reality of landscape which was hereafter to distinguish their country. In this the later Flemish painters rise as much above the Van Eycks as Leonardo and Raffaele above their predecessors. But at first Teutonic might seem as if it would vie for the palm of Christian painting.^d

The works of Nicolas V. in letters and in arts have ended our survey of these two great departments of Christian influence, and summed up the account of Latin Christendom. The papacy of Nicolas V. closed the age of mediæval letters; it terminated, at least in Italy, if Brunelleschi had not already closed it, the reign of mediæval architecture.^e In painting, by his muni-

^d Hubert Van Eyck, born about 1386, died 1426. John Van Eyck, born about 1400, died 1445.—See for German Painting the Translation of Kugler, by Sir Edmund Head. On the Van Eycks, Waagen's Dissertation.

^e Two sentences of Vasari show the revolution arrived at and taught by that great Architect, who boasted to

have raised the majestic cupola of Florence. "Solo l'intento suo era l'architettura che già era spenta, lico gli ordini antichi buoni, e non la *tedesca e barbara* la quale molto si usava nel suo tempo. * * * E aveva in se due concetti grandissimi; l'uno era il tornare a luce la buona architettura, credendo egli, ritrovandola non lasciarla.

sicent patronage of that which was then the highest art, but which was only the harbinger of nobler things to come, the pontificate of Nicolas marked the transition period from the ancient to the modern world.

But Nicolas V. was only a restorer, and a restorer not in the hierarchical character, of the mediæval architecture. That architecture had achieved its great works, Strasburg, all that was to rise, till the present day, of Cologne, Antwerp, Rheims, Bourges, Amiens, Chartres, St. Ouen at Rouen, Notre Dame at Paris, our own Westminster, York, Salisbury, Lincoln. This great art survived in its creative power, only as it were, at the extremities of Latin Christendom. It had even passed its gorgeous epoch, called in France the Flamboyant; it was degenerating into luxury and wantonness; it had begun to adorn for the sake of adornment. But Rome was still faithful to Rome; her architecture would not condescend to Teutonic influence. That which is by some called Christian architecture, as has been said, was to the end almost a stranger in the city still acknowledged as the capital of Christendom.^f Rome at least, if not Italy, was still holding aloof from that which was the strength of Rome and of Latin Christendom—Mediævalism; Nicolas V., as it were, accomplished the divorce. In him Rome repudiated the whole of what are called the Dark Ages. Rome began the revival which was to be in the end the ruin of her supremacy.

Nicolas V., as Pope, as sovereign of Rome, as patron of letters and arts, stood, consciously perhaps, but with

manco memoria di se, che fatto si aveva Cimabue e Giotto; l'altro di trovar modo, se e si potesse, a voltare la cupola di S. Maria del Fiore di Firenze," p. 207, edit. Milan. Compare

p. 265.

^f It was in Rome that Brunelleschi "ritrovò le cornici antiche, e l'ordine Toscano, Corinthio, Dorico, e Ionico alle primarie forme restituiti."—Vasari.

a dim perception of the change, at the head of a new era. It was an epoch in Christian civilisation. To him the Pope might seem as destined for long ages to rule the subject and tributary world; the great monarchies, the Empire, France, Spain, England, were yet to rise, each obedient or hostile to the Pope as might suit their policy. He could not foresee that the Pope, from the high autocrat over all, would become only one of the powers of Christendom. To be a sovereign Italian prince might appear necessary to his dignity, his security. It was but in accordance with the course of things in Italy. Everywhere, except in stern oligarchical Venice, in Milan, in Verona, in Ferrara, in Florence, princes had risen, or were arising, on the ruins of the Republics, Viscontis, Sforzas, della Scalas, Estes, Medicis. Thomas of Sarzana (he took this name, he had no other, from his native town), so obscure that his family was unknown, had no ancestry to glorify, no descendants whom he might be tempted to enrich or to ennoble. He had no prophetic fears that, as sovereign princes, his successors would yield to the inevitable temptation of founding princely families at the expense of the interests, of the estates and dominions of the Church. Not only was the successor of St. Peter to be merged in the more ambitious politics of the world, but trammelled in the more mean and intricate politics of Italy. Almost from this time the names of the successive Popes may be traced in the annals of the cities and petty principalities of Italy, in the rolls of the estates of the Church, of which they have become lords, in their magnificent palaces in Rome. Among those palaces there is but one, the Colonna, which boasts an ancient name; but few which bear not the name of a papal house. Too often among the Popes of the next,

century the character (and dark indeed was that character) of the Italian sovereign prince prevailed over that of the Pope. If his house was not perpetuated, it was solely from the indignant hostility and execration of mankind.⁵

As to Nicolas V. Italy, or rather Latin Christianity, mainly owes her age of learning, as well as its fatal consequences to Rome and to Latin Christianity, so those consequences, in his honest ardour, he would be the last to prognosticate or to foresee. It was the splendid vision of Nicolas V. that Christianity was to array herself in the spoils of the ancient world, and so maintain with more universal veneration her supremacy over the human mind. This, however, the revival of learning, was but one of the four great principles in slow, silent, irresistible operation in Western Christendom, mutually co-operative, blending with and strengthening each other, ominous of and preparing the great revolution of the next century. But to all these, signs at once and harbingers of the coming change, Nicolas could not but be blind; for of these signs some were those which a Pope, himself so pious and so prosperous, might refuse to see; or, if not dazzled by his prosperity, too entirely absorbed in dangers of far other kind, the fall of Constantinople, the advance of the Turks on Western Christendom, might be unable to see. This one danger, as it (so he might hope) would work reformation in the startled Church, would bring the alienated world into close and obedient confederacy with her head. The Pope, like Urban of old, would take his place at the head of the defensive crusade.

⁵ Pius II. alienated Radicofani, not to his family, but to his native city Sienna.

L.—Of these principles, of these particular signs, the first was the *progress of the human intellect*, inevitable in the order of things, and resulting in a two-fold oppugnancy to the established dominion of the Church. The first offspring of the expanding intellect was the long-felt, still growing impatience, intolerance of the oppressions and the abuses of the Papacy, of the Papal Court, and of the Papal religion. This impatience did not of necessity involve the rejection of the doctrines of Latin Christianity. But it would no longer endure the enormous powers still asserted by the Popes over temporal sovereigns, the immunities claimed by the clergy as to their persons and from the common burthens of the State, the exorbitant taxation, the venality of Rome, above all, the Indulgences, with which the Papal power in its decline seemed determined wantonly to insult the moral and religious sense of mankind. Long before Luther this abuse had rankled in the heart of Christendom. It was in vain for the Church to assert that, rightly understood, Indulgences only released from temporal penances: that they were a commutation, a merciful, lawful commutation for such penances. The language of the promulgators and vendors of the Indulgences, even of the Indulgences themselves, was, to the vulgar ear, the broad, plain, direct guarantee from the pains of purgatory, from hell itself, for tens, hundreds, thousands of years; a sweeping pardon for all sins committed, a sweeping licence for sins to be committed: and if this false construction, it might be, was perilous to the irreligious, this even seeming flagrant dissociation of morality from religion was no less revolting to the religious.^a Nor was there as yet any general improve-

^a Chaucey's Pardoner is a striking illustration of the popular notion and popular feeling in England.

ment in the lives of the Clergy or of the Monks, which by its awful sanctity might rebuke the vulgar and natural interpretation of these Indulgences.¹ The antagonism of the more enlightened intellect to the *doctrines* of the mediæval Church was slower, more timid, more reluctant. It was as yet but doubt, suspicion, indifference; the irreligious were content to be quietly irreligious; the religious had not as yet found in the plain Biblical doctrines that on which they could calmly and contentedly rest their faith. Religion had not risen to a purer spirituality to compensate for the loss of the materialistic worship of the dominant Church. The conscience shrunk from the responsibility of taking cognisance of itself; the soul dared not work out its own salvation. The clergy slept on the brink of the precipice. So long as they were not openly opposed they thought all was safe. So long as unbelief in the whole of their system lurked quietly in men's hearts, they cared not to inquire what was brooding in those inner depths.

II.—The second omen at once and sign of change was the cultivation of classical learning. Letters almost at once ceased to be cloistral, hierarchical, before long almost to be Christian. In Italy, indeed, the Pope had set himself at the head of this vast movement; yet Florence vied with Rome. Cosmo de' Medici was the rival of Nicolas V. But, notwithstanding the Pope's position, the clergy rapidly ceased

¹ The irrefragable testimony to the universal misinterpretation, the natural, inevitable misinterpretation of the language of the Indulgences, the misinterpretation riveted on the minds of men by their profligate vendors, is the solemn, reiterated repudiation of those notions by Councils and by Popes. The definitions of the Council of Trent and of Pius V. had not been wanted, if the Church doctrine had been the belief of mankind.

to be the sole and almost exclusive depositaries of letters. The scholars might condescend to hold canonries or abbeys as means of maintenance, as honours, or rewards (thus, long before, had Petrarch been endowed), but it was with the tacit understanding, or at least the almost unlimited enjoyment, of perfect freedom from ecclesiastical control, so long as they did not avowedly enter on theological grounds, which they avoided rather from indifference and from growing contempt, than from respect. On every side were expanding new avenues of inquiry, new trains of thought: new models of composition were offering themselves. All tended silently to impair the reverence for the ruling authorities. Men could not labour to write like Cicero and Cæsar without imbibing something of their spirit. The old ecclesiastical Latin began to be repudiated as rude and barbarous. Scholasticism had crushed itself with its own weight. When monks or friars were the only men of letters, and monastic schools the only field in which intellect encountered intellect, the huge tomes of Aquinas, and the more summary axioms of Peter Lombard, might absorb almost the whole active mind of Christendom. But Plato now drove out the Theologic Platonism, Aristotle the Aristotelism of the schools. The Platonism, indeed, of Marsilius Ficinus, taking its interpretation rather from Proclus and Plotinus and the Alexandrians, would hardly have offended Julian himself by any obtrusive display of Christianity. On his deathbed Cosmo de' Medici is attended by Ficinus, who assures him of another life on the authority of Socrates, and teaches him resignation in the words of Plato, Xenocrates, and other Athenian sages. The cultivation of Greek was still more fatal to Latin domination. Even the familiar study of the Greek Fathers (as far as an imposing ritual

and the monastic spirit consistent with those of the Latin Church) was altogether alien to the scholasticism dominant in Latin Theology. They knew nothing of the Latin supremacy, nothing of the rigid form, which many of its doctrines, as of Transubstantiation, had assumed. Greek revealed a whole religious world, extraneous to and in many respects oppugnant to Latin Christianity. But the most fatal result was the revelation of the Greek Testament, necessarily followed by that of the Hebrew Scriptures, and the dawn of a wider Biblical Criticism. The proposal of a new translation of the Scriptures at once disenthroned the Vulgate from its absolute exclusive authority. It could not but admit the Greek, and then the Hebrew, as its rival, as its superior in antiquity. Biblical Criticism once begun, the old voluminous authoritative interpreters, De Lyra, Turrecremata, and the rest, were thrown into obscurity. Erasmus was sure to come; with Erasmus a more simple, clear, popular interpretation of the divine word.^k The mystic and allegoric comment on the Scriptures, on which rested wholly some of the boldest assertions of Latin Christianity, fell away at once before his closer, more literal, more grammatical study of the Text. At all events, the Vulgate receded, and with the Vulgate Latin Christianity began to withdraw into a separate sphere; it ceased to be the sole, universal religion of Western Christendom.

III.—The growth of the modern languages not merely into vernacular means of communication, but into the vehicles of letters, of poetry, of oratory, of history, of preaching, at length of national documents,

^k The Paraphrase and Notes of Erasmus, in my judgement, was the most important Book even of his day. We must remember that it was almost legally adopted by the Church of England.

still later of law, and of science, threw back Latin more and more into a learned dialect. It was relegated into the study of the scholar, into books intended for the intercommunication only of the learned, and for a certain time for the negotiations and treaties of remote kingdoms, who were forced to meet on some common ground. It is curious that in Italy the revival of classical learning for a time crushed the native literature, or at least retarded its progress. From Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, to Ariosto and Machiavelli, excepting some historians, Malespina, Dino Compagni, Villani, there is almost total silence: silence, at least, unbroken by any powerful voice. Nor did the liberal patronage of Nicolas V. call forth one work of lasting celebrity in the native tongue. The connexion of the development of the Transalpine, more especially the Teutonic languages, has been already examined more at length. Here it may suffice to resume, that the vernacular translation of the Bible was an inevitable result of the perfection of those tongues. In Germany and in England that translation tended most materially, by fixing a standard in general of vigorous, noble, poetic, yet idiomatic language, to hasten and to perpetuate the change. It was natural that as soon as a nation had any books of its own, it should seek to have the Book of Books. The Church, indeed, trembling for the supremacy of her own Vulgate, and having witnessed the fatal perils of such Translations in the successes of all the earlier Dissidents, was perplexed and wavered in her policy. Now she thundered out her awful prohibition; now endeavoured herself to supply the want which would not remain unsatisfied, by a safer and a sanctioned version. But the mind of man could not wait on her hesitating movements. The free, bold, untrammelled version had possession of the national mind and national

language; it had become the undeniable patrimony of the people, the standard of the language.

IV.—Just at this period the two great final Reformers, the inventor of printing and the manufacturer of paper, had not only commenced, but perfected at once their harmonious inventions. Books, from slow, toilsome, costly productions, became cheap, were multiplied with rapidity which seemed like magic, and were accessible to thousands to whom manuscripts were utterly unapproachable. The power, the desire, increased with the facility of reading. Theology, from an abstruse recondite science, the exclusive possession of an Order, became popular; it was, ere long, the general study, the general passion. The Preacher was not sought the less on account of this vast extension of his influence. His eloquent words were no longer limited by the walls of a Church, or the power of a human voice; they were echoed, perpetuated, promulgated over a kingdom, over a continent. The fiery Preacher became a pamphleteer; he addressed a whole realm; he addressed mankind. It was no longer necessary that man should act directly upon man; that the flock should derive their whole knowledge from their Pastor, the individual Christian from his ghostly adviser. The man might find satisfaction for his doubts, guidance for his thoughts, excitement for his piety in his own chamber from the silent pages of the theological treatise. To many the Book became the Preacher, the Instructor, even the Confessor. The conscience began to claim the privilege, the right, of granting absolution to itself. All this, of course, at first timidly, intermittingly, with many compunctious returns to the deserted fold. The Hierarchy endeavoured to seize and bind down to their own service these unruly powers. Their presses at Venice, at Florence, at Rome,

displayed the new art in its highest magnificence ; but it was not the splendid volume, the bold and majestic type, the industrious editorial care, which worked downwards into the depths of society ; it was the coarse, rude, brown sheet ; the ill-cut German type ; the brief, sententious, plain tract which escaped all vigilance, and so sunk untraced, unanswered, unconfuted, into the eager mind of awakening man. The sternest vigilance might be exercised by the Argus-eyes of the still ubiquitous Clergy. The most solemn condemnations, the most awful prohibitions might be issued ; yet from the birthday of printing, their sole exclusive authority over the mind of man was gone. That they rallied and resumed so much power ; that they had the wisdom and the skill to seize upon the education of mankind, and to seal up again the outbursting springs of knowledge and free examination, is a mighty marvel. Though from the rivals, the opponents, the foes, the subjugators of the great Temporal Despots, they became, by their yet powerful hold on the conscience, and by their common interests in keeping mankind in slavery, their allies, their ministers, their rulers ; yet, from that hour, the Popes must encounter more dangerous, pertinacious, unconquerable antagonists than the Hohenstaufens and Bavarians, the Henrys and Fredericks of old. The sacerdotal caste must recede from authority to influence. Here they would mingle into the general mass of society, assimilate themselves to the bulk of mankind, become citizens, subjects, fathers of families, and fulfilling the common duties and relations of life, work more profoundly beneficial, moral, and religious effects. There they would still stand in a great degree apart, as a separate, unmingling order, yet submit to public opinion, if exercising control, themselves under strong control. This great part of the sacerdotal order

at a much later period was to be stripped with ruder and more remorseless hands of their power, their rank, their wealth; they were to be thrust down from their high places, to become stipendiaries of the state. Their great strength, Monasticism, in some kingdoms was to be abolished by law, which they could not resist; or it was only tolerated as useful to the education, and to the charitable necessities of mankind; almost everywhere it sunk into desuetude, or lingered as the last earthly resort of the world-weary and despondent, the refuge of a rare fanaticism, which now excites wonder rather than widespread emulation. From Nicolas V., seated, as it were, on its last summit, the Papal power, the Hierarchical system, commences its visible decline. Latin Christianity had to cede a large portion of its realms, which became the more flourishing, prosperous, intellectual portion of the world, to Teutonic Christianity. It had hereafter to undergo more fierce and fiery trials. But whatever may be its future doom, one thing may be asserted without fear, it can never again be the universal Christianity of the West.

I pretend not to foretell the future of Christianity. but whosoever believes in its perpetuity (and to disbelieve it were treason against its Divine Author, apostacy from his faith) must suppose that, by some providential law, it must adapt itself, as it has adapted itself with such wonderful versatility, but with a faithful conservation of its inner vital spirit, to all vicissitudes and phases of man's social, moral, intellectual being. There is no need to discuss a recent theory (of M. Comte) that man is to become all intellect; and that religion, residing rather in the imagination, the affections, and the conscience, is to wither away, and cede the whole Dominion over mankind to what is called "positive

philosophy." I have no more faith in the mathematical millennium of M. Comte (at all events we have centuries enough to wait for it) than in the religious millennium of some Judaising Christians.

Latin Christianity or Papal Christianity (which is Latin Christianity in its full development), whatever it may be called with least offence, has not only ceased to be, it can never again be, the exclusive, the paramount, assuredly not the universal religion of enlightened men. The more advanced the civilisation, no doubt, in a certain sense, the more need of Christianity. All restrictive views, therefore, of Christianity, especially if such Christianity be at issue with the moral sense and with the progressive reason of man, are urged with perilous and fearful responsibility. Better Christianity vague in creed, defective in polity, than no Christianity. If Latin Christianity were to be the one perpetual, immutable, unalterable code, how much of the world would still be openly, how much secretly without religion? Even in what we may call the Latin world, to how large a part is Latin Christianity what the religion of old Rome was in the days of Cæsar and Cicero, an object of traditionary and prudential respect, of vast political importance, an edifice of which men fear to see the ruin, yet have no inward sense of its foundation in truth? On more religious minds it will doubtless maintain its hold as a religion of authority—a religion of outward form—an objective religion, and so possessing inexhaustible powers of awakening religious emotion. As a religion of authority, as an objective religion, as an emotional religion, it may draw within its pale proselytes of congenial minds from a more vague, more subjective, more rational faith. As a religion of authority it spares the soul from the pain of thought, from the harassing doubt, the despond-

ing scruple. Its positive and peremptory assurances not only overawe the weak, but offer an indescribable consolation—a rest, a repose, which seems at least to be peace. Independence of thought, which to some is their holiest birthright, their most glorious privilege, their sternest duty, is to others the profoundest misery, the heaviest burthen, the responsibility from which they would shrink with the deepest awe, which they would plunge into any abyss to avoid. What relief to devolve upon another the oppressive question of our eternal destiny!

As an objective religion, a materialistic religion, a religion which addresses itself to the senses of man, Latin Christianity has no less great and enduring power. To how many is there no reality without bodily form, without at least the outline, the symbol suggestive of bodily form! With the vulgar at least, it does not rebuke the rudest, coarsest superstition; for the more educated, the symbol refines itself almost to spirituality.

With a large part of mankind, a far larger no doubt of womankind, whose sensibilities are in general more quick and intense than the reasoning faculties, Christian emotion will still either be the whole of religion, or the measure, and the test of religion. Doubtless some primary elements of religion seem intuitive, and are anterior to, or rise without the consciousness of any reasoning process, whose office it is to confirm and strengthen them—the existence of God and of the Infinite, Divine Providence, the religious sense of right and wrong, retribution; more or less vaguely the immortality of the soul. Other doctrines will ever be assumed to be as eternal and immutable. With regard to these, the religious sentiment, which lives upon religious emotion, will be as reluctant to appeal to the

slow, cold verdict of the judgement. Their evidence is their power of awakening, keeping alive, and rendering more intense the feeling, the passion of reverence, of adoration, of awe and love. To question them is impiety; to examine them perilous imprudence; to reject them misery, the most dreary privation. Emotional religion—and how large a part of the religion of mankind is emotional!—refuses any appeal from itself.

Latin Christianity, too, will continue to have a firmer hold on the nations of Latin descent; of those whose languages have a dominant affinity with the Latin. It is not even clear whether it may not have some secret charm for those instructed in Latin; at all events, with them the religious language of Latin Christianity being more intelligible, hardly more than an antiquated and sacred dialect of their own, will not so peremptorily demand its transference into the popular and vernacular tongue.

But that which is the strength of Latin Christianity in some regions, in some periods, with some races, with some individual minds, is in other lands, times, nations, and minds its fatal, irremediable principle of decay and dissolution; and must become more so with the advancement of mankind in knowledge, especially in historical knowledge. That authority which is here a sacred, revered despotism, is there an usurpation, an intolerable tyranny. The Teutonic mind never entirely threw off its innate independence. The long feuds of the Empire and the Papacy were but a rude and premature attempt at emancipation from a yoke to which Rome had submitted her conqueror. Had the Emperors not striven for the mastery of the Latin world, had they stood aloof from Italy, even then the issue might have been different. A Teutonic Emperor had been a more formidable ante-

gonist. But it is not the authority of the Pope alone, but that of the sacerdotal order, against which there is a deep, irresistible insurrection in the Teutonic mind. Men have begun to doubt, men are under the incapacity of believing, men have ceased to believe, the absolutely indispensable necessity of the intervention of any one of their fellow-creatures between themselves and the mercy of God. They cannot admit that the secret of their eternal destination is undeniably confided to another; that they must walk not by the light of their own conscience, but by foreign guidance; that the Clergy are more than messengers with a mission to keep up, by constant reiteration, the truths of the Gospel, to be prepared by special study for the interpretation of the sacred writings, to minister in the simpler ordinances of religion; that they have absolute power to release from sins; without omniscience to act in the place of the Omniscient. This, which, however disguised or softened off, is the doctrine of Latin, of mediæval, of Papal Christianity, has become offensive, presumptuous; to the less serious, ludicrous. Of course, as the relative position of the Clergy, once the sole masters of almost all intellectual knowledge, law, history, philosophy, has totally changed, their lofty pretensions jar more strongly against the common sense of man. Even the interpretation of the sacred writings is no secret and esoteric doctrine, no mystery of which they are the sole and exclusive hierophants.

Toleration, in truth—toleration, which is utterly irreconcilable with the theory of Latin Christianity—has been forced into the mind and heart of Christendom, even among many whose so-called immutable creed is in its irrevocable words as intolerant as ever. What was proclaimed boldly, nakedly, without reserve, without

imitation, and as implicitly believed by little less than all mankind, is now, in a large part of the civilised world, hardly asserted except in the heat of controversy, or from a gallant resolution not to shrink from logical consequences. Wherever publicly avowed or maintained, it is thought but an odious adherence to ignorant bigotry. It is believed by a still-diminishing few that Priest, Cardinal, Pope has the power of irrevocably pre-declaring the doom of his fellow men. Though the Latin Church-language may maintain its unmitigated severity, it is eluded by some admitted reservation, some implied condition utterly at variance with the peremptory tone of the old anathema. Excommunication is obsolete; the interdict on a nation has not been heard for centuries; even the proscription of books is an idle protest.

The subjective, more purely internal, less demonstrative character of Teutonic religion is equally impatient of the more distinct and definite, and rigid objectiveness of Latin Christianity. That which seems to lead the Southern up to heaven, the regular intermediate ascending hosts of Saints, Martyrs, Apostles, the Virgin, to the contemplative Teuton obscures and intercepts his awful, intuitive sense of the Godhead, unspiritualises his Deity, whom he can no longer worship as pure Spirit. To him it is the very vagueness, vastness, incomprehensibility of his conception of the Godhead which proclaims its reality. If here God must be seen on the altar in a materialised form, at once visible and invisible; if God must be working a perpetual miracle; if the passive spirit must await the descent of the Godhead in some sensible sign or symbol;—there, on the other hand (especially as the laws of nature become better known and more familiar, and what of old seemed arbitrary variable agencies are become manifest laws), the Deity as it were recedes into

more unapproachable majesty. It may indeed subtilise itself into a metaphysical First Cause, may expand into a dim Pantheism, but with the religious his religion still rests in a wise and sublime and revered system of Providential government which implies the Divine Personality.

Latin, the more objective faith, tends to materialism, to servility, to blind obedience or blind guidance, to the tacit abrogation, if not the repudiation, of the moral influence by the undue elevation of the dogmatic and ritual part. It is prone to become, as it has become, Paganism with Christian images, symbols, and terms; it has, in its consummate state, altogether set itself above and apart from Christian, from universal morality, and made what are called works of faith the whole of religion; the religion of the murderer, who, if while he sheathes his dagger in the heart of his victim, he does homage to an image of the Virgin, is still religious; the religion of the tyrant, who, if he retires in Lent to sackcloth and ashes, may live the rest of the year in promiscuous concubinage, and slaughter his subjects by thousands. So Teutonic Christianity, more self-depending, more self-guided, more self-wrought-out, is not without its peculiar dangers. It may become self-sufficient, unwarrantably arrogant, impatient not merely of control, but of all subordination, incapable of just self-estimation. It will have a tendency to isolate the man, either within himself or as a member of a narrow sect, with all the evils of sectarianism, blind zeal, obstinate self-reliance, or rather self-adoration, hatred, contempt of others, moroseness, exclusiveness, fanaticism, undue appreciation of small

■ Read what Mr. Coleridge used to call the sublime of Roman Catholic Antinomianism. Calderon. *Devocion de la Cruz*.

things. It will have its own antinomianism, a dissociation of that moral and religious perfection of man which is Christianity; it will appeal to conscious direct influences of Divine Grace with as much confidence, and as little discrimination or judgement, as the Latin to that through the intermediate hierarchy and ritual of the Church.

Its intellectual faith will be more robust; nor will its emotional be less profound and intense. But the strength of its intellectual faith (and herein is at once its glory and its danger) will know no limits to its daring speculation. How far Teutonic Christianity may in some parts already have gone almost or absolutely beyond the pale of Christianity, how far it may have lost itself in its unrebuked wanderings, posterity only will know. What distinctness of conception, what precision of language, may be indispensable to true faith; what part of the ancient dogmatic system may be allowed silently to fall into disuse, as at least superfluous, and as beyond the proper range of human thought and human language; how far the Sacred records may, without real peril to their truth, be subjected to closer investigation; to what wider interpretation, especially of the Semitic portion, those records may submit, and wisely submit, in order to harmonise them with the irrefutable conclusions of science; how far the Eastern veil of allegory which hangs over their truth may be lifted or torn away to show their unshadowed essence; how far the poetic vehicle through which truth is conveyed may be gently severed from the truth;—all this must be left to the future historian of our religion. As it is my own confident belief that the words of Christ, and his words alone (the primal, indefeasible truths of Christianity), shall not pass away; so I cannot presume to say that men may not attain to a clearer, at the same time more

full, comprehensive, and balanced sense of those words, than has as yet been generally received in the Christian world. As all else is transient and mutable, these only eternal and universal, assuredly, whatever light may be thrown on the mental constitution of man, even on the constitution of nature, and the laws which govern the world, will be concentrated so as to give a more penetrating vision of those undying truths. Teutonic Christianity (and this seems to be its mission and privilege), however nearly in its more perfect form it may already have approximated, may approximate still more closely to the absolute and perfect faith of Christ; it may discover and establish the sublime unison of religion and reason; keep in tone the triple-chorded harmony of faith, holiness, and charity; assert its own full freedom, know the bounds of that freedom, respect the freedom of others. Christianity may yet have to exercise a far wider, even if more silent and untraceable influence, through its primary, all-pervading principles, on the civilisation of mankind.

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